Ardusa

A Grammar of the Ardusan Languages

by Ian A. Cook

last edited
August 6, 2020

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Ardusa is a fictional landmass set in a fictional constructed world. All of the languages spoken on Ardusa, such as Tavonic, Alnuric, Redodhic, and others, are themselves fictional, spoken by fictional groups of people, and as such are not related to any naturally existing languages. These languages' vocabularies are entirely *a priori*, which means that no words are derived from the vocabularies of real-world languages. That being said, these languages are intended to be naturalistic, so similarities will occur. Nonetheless, any actual duplication is accidental.

No website yet

</> https://github.com/nai888/ardusa

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Abbreviations

1P	first person plural
1PC	first person paucal
1S	first person singular
2P	second person plural
2PC	second person paucal
2S	second person singular
3P	third person plural
3PC	third person paucal
3S	third person singular
ABS	absolutive
ACC	accusative
ACT	active
AN	animate
DAT	dative
DEM	demonstrative
DET	determiner
DIM	diminutive
DIST	distal
ERG	ergative
GEN	genitive
IMP	imperative
IN	inanimate
IND	indicative
INF	infinitive
INT	interrogative
INTR	intransitive
IPFV	imperfective
MED	medial
NEG	negative
NMZ	nominalizer
NPST	nonpast
NRTRV	non-restrictive
PASS	passive
PC	paucal
PFV	perfective
PL	plural
PRG	progressive
PROX	proximate
PST	past
PTCP	participle
Q	question particle
REL	relative
RTRV	restrictive
RTSP	retrospective
SBJV	subjunctive
SG	singular
TOP	topic

*	ungrammatical
?	grammatically questionable
!	semantically odd or ill-formed

Acknowledgments

Given that I have not taken any official linguistics coursework, this work would not be possible without several sources of linguistic education. Mark Rosenfelder's *The Language Construction Kit* and *Advanced Language Construction Kit* were important to my first starting out in the world of language construction, with further knowledge gained from David J. Peterson's *The Art of Language Invention*. Of course, I received an unmeasurable amount of education via several online sources, especially the articles available on Wikipedia. Yet more education, as well as inspiration and motivation, have come from the *Conlangery* podcast and all its hosts and guests. Lexicon generation received guidance from Mark Rosenfelder's *The Conlanger's Lexipedia* and William S. Annis' *A Conlanger's Thesaurus*.

Finally, this document's format, layout, and organization have been influenced by several sources, particularly Thomas E. Payne's *Describing Morphosyntax*, Carsten Becker's *A Grammar of Ayeri*, and Matt Pearson's *The Okuna Reference Grammar*.

Preface

This document provides a detailed grammatical description of the languages of Ardusa, a fictional landmass set in a fictional constructed world. This project serves as a method for linguistic research, as an intellectual exercise, as an outlet for creative and artistic expression, and as a setting for potential future works of fiction. It is intended primarily for my own personal use and entertainment, though others with similar linguistic interests will hopefully find it interesting and entertaining as well. I have chosen to use LaTeX to typeset this grammar because it provides a way to be clear, consistent, and organized. Further, since LaTeX uses plain text files, it allows me to use Git for version control so I can keep track of changes over time.

My goal is to build a series of languages with naturalistic grammars that are linguistically plausible and consistent, yet also original in their content and details. This project consists of three distinct and unrelated language families, each of which contains one or more related languages. Some elements of these languages are influenced by existing languages such as Japanese, Finnish, Navajo, Nahuatl, and Arabic, but they are not meant to simply mimic these, instead drawing this inspiration into new forms along with entirely *a priori* lexicons. Ardusa and the Ardusan languages is an ongoing project with no fixed endpoint or goal.

This concise grammar is my attempt to document the Ardusan languages in an official and systematic way, and as comprehensively as possible. It is intended to be the official description of the languages. This is a concise grammar because, admittedly, I am not a professional linguist, nor have I taken any linguistics coursework. My education in linguistics consists solely of self-guided research, which means invariably my knowledge will be limited. It is a concise grammar because, frankly, I don't know enough to go into greater detail. That being said, I'm always eager to learn, and will always accept feedback. Again, learning is one of the reasons for this endeavor.

Since the purpose of writing this grammar is to provide a comprehensive description of the Ardusan languages, not to teach them to others, it is not intended to serve as a textbook or as a way to learn the languages. I have organized topics thematically, rather than curricularly, and I employ technical terms when they are precise, accurate, and appropriate. I have not conducted a formal analysis of the languages, but I have worked to make it as descriptive as possible.

The discussion is ordered from the smallest elements of the languages to the largest. It begins with a description of each language's place in Ardusa followed by their phonologies, it addresses morphology and the combining of words, it discusses vocabulary and derivation, and it explains syntax and discourse. The final chapter serves as a reference grammar, summarizing all of the previous chapters. There are

also several appendices describing the conceptual metaphors that organize much of the lexicons, the naming practices of the fictional speakers of these languages, several translation examples, and lexicons. Other resources include a glossary of linguistic glossing abbreviations, a bibliography, and an index.

This document uses several linguistics conventions to clarify meaning. Any reference to specific orthographic spelling is marked with angled brackets, such as ⟨hin⟩. Pronunciations are usually given phonemically, in which case they are marked with slashes, such as /hin/. Phonetic pronunciations are used only when conveying specific details like the difference between allophones, and are marked with square brackets, such as [çin]. Both phonemic and phonetic pronunciations are given using the International Phonetic Alphabet. Foreign words are always written in italics, such as *lu*. English glosses are surrounded by single quotes, such as 'and'. If a morphological gloss is provided in-line, it is surrounded by parentheses, such as (INF).

Many short examples are provided in one single line.

(1) Tavonic: yɔJ *šek* /ʃek/ 'ran' (run-IND.PST.PFV)

Longer examples are usually provided with a multi-line, or interlinear, gloss. In these examples, the optional first line will indicate which language the example is in, if it is not clear from context. The next two lines present the text in that language, one in the Ardusan Script and one using the romanization, followed by the pronunciation. After this, the text is broken into its component morphemes, and the following line provides a morpheme-by-morpheme gloss. The final line provides an English translation of the example phrase or sentence.

(2) Tavonic
bʐb vJv yɔđv:
Nan oko šeðo.
/nan o'ko 'ʃe.ðo/

nan=	*oko*	*š-eðo*
PL.AN.TOP=	dog	run-IND.PST.PRG

'The dogs were running.'

As shown in example 2, morpheme glosses are labeled with abbreviations in SMALL CAPS. A full list of all glossing abbreviations is given on page x. A hyphen marks a morpheme boundary within a word that is shared between the text and its gloss, while a period marks a boundary present in only one or the other, including when a single word in the text corresponds to multiple words in its gloss. Clitics are marked with an equals sign, reduplication with a tilde, discontinuous affixes (e.g., infixes, circumfixes) with angle brackets, and morphemes that cannot be easily separated out with backslashes.

The LaTeX source code for this grammar and a copy of this PDF are available in a public GitHub repository. Undoubtedly, there will be errors in this document. If you notice any, please feel free to open an issue in the GitHub repository with a description and the location of the error.

Ian A. Cook
Minneapolis, September 8, 2018

Part I

Tavonic Family: Tavonic

1

History and Ethnography

This chapter will present a brief history of the Tavonic language family, followed by a short description of its ethnolinguistic context.

1.1 Brief History

The Tavotath (the Tavonic people) migrated to Ardusa hundreds of years ago in what they termed Year 1 of the Ardusan Era (AE). Ardusa is far from any other landmasses and is isolated from the influence of other lands and other peoples. The Tavotath landed in the warm southeastern regions of Ardusa where they first established their new home, naming this new realm Ϙɲʃכɜv *Urdeso*, a compound word meaning 'Safe Land'. Over the following centuries, the Tavotath spread westward and northward throughout the whole of Ardusa.

As the Tavotath spread, they formed several individual territories, each of which eventually developed into small kingdoms. These kingdoms constantly battled one another for power, and borders were continually shifting. Those who fled the fighting fled northward, furthering the Tavonic expansion throughout Ardusa. As the Tavotath spread farther apart and splintered, their language diverged. Two main dialects emerged, one in the north and one in the south.

After a few hundred years, one kingdom in the south emerged as dominant, conquering or allying with more and more kingdoms until, by 327 AE, the entire south of Ardusa was united under one empire. This empire enforced the usage of the language that had emerged in the south, thus forming the Alnuric language. The empire continued to push northward until it spread too thin and reached a stalemate with the allied kingdoms in the north around 371 AE. Finally, in 582 AE after a couple hundred years of relatively stable rule, the empire declined and divided again into individual territories, leaving behind six sovereign kingdoms.

While the empire was emerging in the south, the kingdoms in the north formed a loose alliance to resist its spread. The alliance managed to reach a stalemate with the empire, stopping its spread northward. The allied kingdoms together maintained the language that emerged in the north, thus forming the Redodhic language. Eventually, as the empire split in 582 AE and the northern alliance was no longer needed, the north also split into individual territories, leaving behind four sovereign kingdoms.

1.2 Ethnography

1.2.1 Demonyms and Language Names

The Tavotath were a tribe that migrated to Ardusa together, fleeing their previous home. The Tavonic word ʒʐqv *tavo* /taˈvo/ means ‘person’, and so the derived word ʒʐqvʒʐɖ *Tavotaþ* /ta.voˈtaθ/ means ‘people’ or ‘tribe’. In other words, the Tavotath referred to themselves as the People, with ʒʐqvbʐʃ *Tavonak* being the Language of the People. The Alnuric- and Redodhic-derived words, ʒɔqvɾɔɖ *Tevodeþ* /te.voˈdeθ/ and ʒvqgɛcɖ *Tovujiþ* /to.vuˈd͡ʒiθ/ respectively, refer to all people who descended from the original Tavotath tribe. Both Alnuric and Redodhic are Tavotath languages and part of the Tavonic language family.

1.2.2 Ethnology

Here will be a brief ethnological description of the Tavotath.

1.2.3 Demography

Here will be a brief demographical description of the Tavotath.

2

Phonology and Orthography

This chapter will present the phonological inventory of consonants and vowels and the orthography used to write them. An observational analysis of the Tavonic languages' syllable structures and phonotactics will follow. The chapter will close with notes on syllable stress within words and a brief exploration of intonation.

2.1 Phoneme Inventory

2.1.1 Consonants

With approximately 20 consonants, Tavonic has an "average" inventory.[1] Table 2.1 shows the full chart of consonant phonemes, along with several allophones enclosed in parentheses. Table 2.2 shows how each consonant in Tavonic is romanized.

Despite its "average" inventory of consonants, there are many more allophones that occur in the language. First, any doubled consonant is realized as a geminated (elongated) consonant.

(1) ɡbbɔŋ *unner* /uˈnːer/ 'empire'

Thus, example 1 above is realized with a lengthened [n]. A doubled ⟨r⟩ is similarly geminated, but the pronunciation changes from a flap/tap to a trill.

The remaining allophones occur due to various sound change processes, mostly by assimilation. For example, /n/ becomes velarized when it appears immediately before a velar consonant.

(2) ʒʐqvbɓʐ *tavonga* [ta.voŋˈga] 'humanlike'

As discussed above, ⟨r⟩ can be pronounced as both a tap/flap [ɾ] and as a trill [r]. Additionally, when part of certain consonant clusters, it can be pronounced as an approximant [ɹ]. This primarily occurs when the ⟨r⟩ leads into a cluster or immediately follows a nasal.

(3) lŋvŋɓʐmɲc *frorgali* [froɹ.ˈga.li] 'to un-see'

[1] Ian Maddieson, "Consonant Inventories," in *The World Atlas of Language Structures Online*, ed. Matthew S. Dryer and Martin Haspelmath (Leipzig: Max Planck Institute for Evolutionary Anthropology, 2013), http://wals.info/chapter/1.

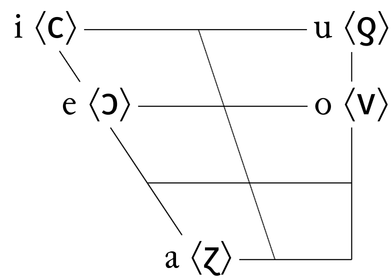
Table 2.1: Tavonic Phonetic Consonant Inventory (allophones in parentheses)

Consonants	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Dental	Alveolar	Post-alveolar	Velar
Nasal	m			n		(ŋ)
Plosive	p b		t d			k g
Fricative	f v		θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ	x ɣ
Flap/Tap				ɾ		
Trill				(r)		
Approximant				(ɹ)		
Lateral				l		

Table 2.2: Tavonic Consonant Romanization

Phone	Phoneme	Script	Romanization	English	Notes
[m]	/m/	⟨ꝑ⟩	⟨m⟩	⟨m⟩	
[n]	/n/	⟨ꝺ⟩	⟨n⟩	⟨n⟩	
[ŋ]	/n/	⟨ꝺ⟩	⟨n⟩	⟨n⟩	/n/ becomes velarized before a velar consonant
[p]	/p/	⟨ꞗ⟩	⟨p⟩	⟨p⟩	
[b]	/b/	⟨ȝ⟩	⟨b⟩	⟨b⟩	
[t]	/t/	⟨ꝛ⟩	⟨t⟩	⟨t⟩	
[d]	/d/	⟨ꝛ⟩	⟨d⟩	⟨d⟩	
[k]	/k/	⟨ꝭ⟩	⟨k⟩	⟨k⟩	
[g]	/g/	⟨ꝺ⟩	⟨g⟩	⟨g⟩	
[f]	/f/	⟨ꝉ⟩	⟨f⟩	⟨f⟩	
[v]	/v/	⟨ꝙ⟩	⟨v⟩	⟨v⟩	
[θ]	/θ/	⟨ꝺ⟩	⟨þ⟩	⟨th⟩	
[ð]	/ð/	⟨ꝺ̄⟩	⟨ð̆⟩	⟨dh⟩	
[s]	/s/	⟨ȝ⟩	⟨s⟩	⟨s⟩	
[z]	/z/	⟨ȝ⟩	⟨z⟩	⟨z⟩	
[ʃ]	/ʃ/	⟨ꝯ⟩	⟨š⟩	⟨sh⟩	
[ʒ]	/ʒ/	⟨ꝏ⟩	⟨ž⟩	⟨zh⟩	
[x]	/x/	⟨ꝓ⟩	⟨ǩ⟩	⟨kh⟩	
[ɣ]	/ɣ/	⟨ꝺ⟩	⟨ğ⟩	⟨gh⟩	
[ɾ]	/r/	⟨ꝗ⟩	⟨r⟩	⟨r⟩	
[r]	/r/	⟨ꝗꝗ⟩	⟨rr⟩	⟨rr⟩	⟨r⟩ is trilled when doubled
[ɹ]	/r/	⟨ꝗ⟩	⟨r⟩	⟨r⟩	⟨r⟩ is occasionally pronounced as an approximant when a part of a consonant cluster
[l]	/l/	⟨ꝶ⟩	⟨l⟩	⟨l⟩	

Table 2.3: Tavonic Vowel Inventory



2.1.2 Vowels

Tavonic distinguishes five vowel qualities, as shown in Table 2.3, giving it an “average” inventory.[2] This means the consonant–vowel ratio is 20:5 or 4.0, which is “average”.[3] Tavonic does not distinguish long and short vowels and does not allow any diphthongs.

Note that all Tavonic vowels have a very rigid acceptable pronunciation with very little variance.

(4) a. ʐɉŋcbɜʐɱc *akrinsali* ‘to rewrite’ is pronounced /ak.rin'sa.li/. ⟨i⟩ is not pronounced with a lax [ɪ] in closed syllables (i.e., /ak.rɪn'sa.li/)

b. ɔɗɔŋcȷ *eðerik* ‘pencil’ is pronounced /e.ðe'rik/. ⟨e⟩ is not pronounced with an open [ɛ] in closed syllables or syllables with secondary stress or with a central [ə] in unaccented syllables (i.e., /ɛ.ðə'rik/), nor is it diphthongized to [eɪ̯] (i.e., /eɪ̯.ðe'rik/)

c. pʐɱv *ǩalo* ‘man’ is pronounced /xa'lo/. ⟨a⟩ is not pronounced with a raised [æ] (i.e., /xæ'lo/), a backed [ɑ] (i.e., /xɑ'lo/), or a centralized [ɜ] (i.e., /xɜ'lo/)

d. ɔɜvbɼc *esondi* ‘arable’ is pronounced /e.son'di/. ⟨o⟩ is not pronounced with an open [ɔ] (i.e., [e.sɔn'di]), nor is it diphthongized to [ou̯] (i.e., /e.sou̯n'di/)

e. lŋƍþʒʐɱc *frumbali* ‘to misunderstand’ is pronounced /frum'ba.li/. ⟨u⟩ is not pronounced with an open [ʌ] (i.e., /frʌm'ba.li/) or a centralized [ʊ] (i.e., /frʊm'ba.li/)

2.2 Phonotactics

At the time of writing, there does not yet exist a sufficient corpus for a meaningful statistical analysis of Tavonic’s phonotactics. Therefore, this section will present only a cursory observational analysis.

2.2.1 Syllable Structures

Syllables in Tavonic must contain a vowel to serve as the syllable’s nucleus. Each syllable will only have at most one vowel. Syllables may also include any single consonant or one of a limited set of

[2] Ian Maddieson, “Vowel Quality Inventories,” in *The World Atlas of Language Structures Online*, ed. Matthew S. Dryer and Martin Haspelmath (Leipzig: Max Planck Institute for Evolutionary Anthropology, 2013), http://wals.info/chapter/2.

[3] Ian Maddieson, “Consonant-Vowel Ratio,” in *The World Atlas of Language Structures Online*, ed. Matthew S. Dryer and Martin Haspelmath (Leipzig: Max Planck Institute for Evolutionary Anthropology, 2013), http://wals.info/chapter/3.

two-consonant clusters as the onset, coda, or both.

In other words, the most complex syllable structure allowed in Tavonic is CCVCC, with restrictions on the allowable consonant clusters, giving Tavonic a "moderately complex syllable structure".[4]

V

Since vowels are required to form a syllable nucleus, the most basic syllable structure is simply a vowel (V). Any syllable that starts with a vowel will occur exclusively at the beginning of a word.

(5) a. ɔ *e* /e/ 'in' or 'on'
b. ɔɗɔŋ *eðer* /eˈðer/ 'pen'
c. ʐʒvþ *abom* /aˈbom/ 'two'
d. vjv *oko* /oˈko/ 'dog'
e. ɡɜɡjvb *usukon* /u.suˈkon/ 'possessor'

C

A syllable can contain a single-consonant onset or coda. There is no restriction on which consonants may appear in the onset or coda with just one consonant. CV is likely the most frequent type of syllable in Tavonic, with CVC probably being the second-most-frequent syllable type.

(6) a. ɓʐ *ga* /ga/ 'but'
b. ɱɡ *lu* /lu/ 'and'
c. þv *mo* /mo/ 'with'
d. pʐɱv *ǩalo* /xaˈlo/ 'man'
e. yɔɗv *šeðo* /ˈʃe.ðo/ (run.PST.IND.PRG) 'was running'
f. ʐʒɱɡ *ablu* /abˈlu/ 'cat'
g. ɡŋɾʐ *urda* /urˈda/ 'safe'
h. ʐjŋʐɾcŋ *akradir* /ak.raˈdir/ 'writing implement'
i. ɔɜvbʐj *esonak* /e.soˈnak/ 'citizen'

Across two syllables within a word, there are restrictions on the combination of consonants that are possible. At such syllable boundaries, a plosive[5] or a fricative[6] can be followed by a liquid[7]; a liquid may be followed by a plosive, fricative, nasal[8], or a different liquid; or a nasal can be followed by any other consonant.

[4]Ian Maddieson, "Syllable Structure," in *The World Atlas of Language Structures Online*, ed. Matthew S. Dryer and Martin Haspelmath (Leipzig: Max Planck Institute for Evolutionary Anthropology, 2013), http://wals.info/chapter/12.

[5]i.e., ⟨p⟩, ⟨t⟩, ⟨k⟩, ⟨b⟩, ⟨d⟩, or ⟨g⟩

[6]i.e., ⟨f⟩, ⟨þ⟩, ⟨s⟩, ⟨š⟩, ⟨ǩ⟩, ⟨v⟩, ⟨ð⟩, ⟨z⟩, ⟨ž⟩, or ⟨ǧ⟩

[7]i.e., ⟨l⟩ or ⟨r⟩

[8]i.e., ⟨m⟩ or ⟨n⟩

(7) a. ɔɱʒc *elbi* /el'bi/ ‘egg’
b. vbɓv *ongo* /on'go/ ‘pan’
c. pʐɱqɔb *ǩalven* /xal'ven/ ‘400’
d. ʐʒɱgbɓʐ *ablunga* /ab.lun'ga/ ‘catlike’

CC

Syllables may contain onsets or codas with two consonants, but these shapes are less common and there are restrictions on the possible combinations. Syllable onsets with two consonants may only occur at the beginning of a word and may only contain a plosive or fricative followed by a liquid. Syllable codas with two consonants may only occur at the end of a word and may only contain a liquid followed by a plosive.

(8) a. ʟŋʐɱ *pral* /pral/ ‘some’
b. ɣɱvɖɔbɾc *tloþendi* /tlo.θen'di/ ‘permittable’
c. lŋʐbɾc *frandi* /fran'di/ ‘visible’
d. yvɱJ *šolk* /ʃolk/ ‘yet’
e. ɾɔɱy *delš* /delʃ/ ‘zero’

2.2.2 Phonological Changes

Placeholder

2.2.3 Syllable Parsing

Placeholder

2.2.4 Number of Syllables per Word

Placeholder

2.3 Prosody

Placeholder

2.3.1 Syllable Weight

Placeholder

2.3.2 Word Stress

Placeholder

2.3.3 Intonation

Placeholder

2.4 Orthography

Placeholder

3

Morphological Typology

Now that Tavonic, Alnuric, and Redodhic's phonologies have been defined in chapter 2, this chapter will discuss the next larger unit of language: morphemes. A morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit in a language. A morpheme can be a root, or it can be another element that affects or modifies the meaning of a root. Further, a morpheme may be freestanding, or it may be bound to other morphemes to form a larger word.

The discussion will begin with a general explanation of the Tavonic family's morphological typology. Following this will be a brief summary of the various morphological processes that occur in the languages, ending with an explanation of the locus of marking.

3.1 Morphological Typology

Traditional research would show that Tavonic is typologically partially isolating and partially fusional, meaning that morphemes are often either separated into distinct words or fused together such that a single phonological unit represents several morphemes. However, according to Bickel and Nichols,

> Recent research has shown that such a scale [ranging from isolating to agglutinative to fusional to introflexive] conflates many different typological variables and incorrectly assumes that these parameters covary universally.[1] Three prominent variables involved in this are phonological fusion, formative exponence, and flexivity (i.e. allomorphy, inflectional classes).[2]

Therefore, we will examine each of these areas—phonological fusion, formative exponence, and flexivity, as well as the degree of synthesis—separately.

[1]Frans Plank, "Split Morphology: how Agglutination and Flexion Mix," *Linguistic Typology* 3 (1999): 279–340; Balthasar Bickel and Johanna Nichols, "Inflectional Morphology," in *Language Typology and Syntactic Description*, ed. Timothy Shopen, 2nd edition (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2005).

[2]Balthasar Bickel and Johanna Nichols, "Fusion of Selected Inflectional Formatives," in *The World Atlas of Language Structures Online*, ed. Matthew S. Dryer and Martin Haspelmath (Leipzig: Max Planck Institute for Evolutionary Anthropology, 2013), http://wals.info/chapter/20.

3.1.1 Phonological Fusion

Tavonic's phonological formatives are partially fusional, being partially "isolating" and partially "concatenative".[3] The concatenative morphemes are phonologically bound, requiring a "host word" with which they form one single phonological word, while the isolating morphemes are "full-fledged phonological words of their own".

Verbs are almost exclusively concatenative, with tense, aspect, and mood morphemes attached directly to the verb's stem.

(1) a. ꝺlꝺɱc
ufuli
/u'fu.li/

uf-uli
sing-INF

'to sing'

b. ꝺlꝺb7ɔʕ
Ufunte!
/u'fun.te/

uf-unte
sing-IMP

'Sing!'

c. þvb ꝺlꝺJ:
Mon ufuk.
/'mon u'fuk/

mon *uf-uk*
IS.TOP sing-IND.PST.PFV

'I sang.'

Example 1 shows how morphemes are attached to the stem of a verb through suffixes, rather than with separate (isolating) modifying words or nonlinear ablaut or tone modifications.

Example 1c similarly shows how personal pronouns are fusional. Example 2 demonstrates further how each personal pronoun simultaneously indicates the person, number, animacy in the third person, case, and whether it is the topic.

(2) a. þvŋ *mor* /mor/ 'I' (IS.ABS)
b. ɗɔ7vb *þeton* /θe'ton/ 'you' (2P.ACC)
c. ƃcbɜɔJ *ginsek* /gin'sek/ 'to it' (3PC.IN.TOP.DAT)

This concatenation appears not only in inflectional morphology, but also in derivational morphology. For example, the word ʒʒɱꝺ7cJ *ablutik* /a.blu'tik/ 'kitten' is formed from the root noun ʒʒɱꝺ

[3]Bickel and Nichols, "Fusion of Selected Inflectional Formatives."

ablu /a'blu/ 'cat' with a diminutive suffix attached (*ablu*-DIM). Similarly, the word ʐJɳʐɾcɳ *akradir* /ak.ra'dir/ 'pen' is formed from the root verb ʐJɳʐɱc *akrali* /ak'ra.li/ 'to write' with a nominalizing suffix (*akra*-NMZ).

Nouns, on the other hand, are exclusively isolating. All grammatical markings, including number, gender, case, and topicality, are indicated using phonologically separate prepositions.

(3) a. bv ʐJɳʐJvb ʐɳɋɖ:
No akrakon aruþ.
/no ak.ra'kon a'ruθ/

no=	*akrakon*	*ar-uþ*
AN.SG.TOP.ABS=	writer	stand-IND.NPST.PRG

'The writer is standing.'

b. ɔɜvb þvɖɔɜ ɔɱʒc yɋɜ Jɔb ʒv7ɳʐ ɾɳʐɣ:
Eson moþes elbi šus ken botra draš.
/e'son mo,θes el'bi 'ʃus ken bot'ra 'draʃ/

∅=	*eson*	*moþes=*	*elbi*	*šus*	*ken=*	*botra*	*dr-aš*
AN.SG.ABS=	farmer	IN.PC.TOP.ACC=	egg	3S.AN.GEN	AN.PL.DAT=	wife	give-IND.NPST.RTSP

'The farmer has given the eggs to his wife.'

Notice in example 3 how every noun is preceded by a preposition that identifies that noun's grammatical role within the sentence.

3.1.2 Formative Exponence

Tavonic has mostly polyexponential formatives, meaning that, in almost all cases, single morphemes express multiple grammatical categories each.[4] Derivational morphemes are all monoexponential while inflectional morphemes are almost exclusively polyexponential.

(4) bʐb 7ʐqv7cJ vbɔ qc?
Nan tavotik one vi?
/nan ta.vo'tik o'ne vi/

nan=	*tavo-tik*	*on-e*	*=vi*
AN.PL.TOP=	person-DIM	play-IND.NPST.IPFV	=Q

'Do children play?'

Example 4 includes one derivational morpheme and three inflectional morphemes attached to the roots 7ʐqv *tavo* and vbɔɱc *oneli*, two of which are polyexponential. The preposition bʐb *nan* is a polyexponential morpheme that identifies the preceding noun's gender (animate), number (plural),

[4]Balthasar Bickel and Johanna Nichols, "Exponence of Selected Inflectional Formatives," in *The World Atlas of Language Structures Online*, ed. Matthew S. Dryer and Martin Haspelmath (Leipzig: Max Planck Institute for Evolutionary Anthropology, 2013), http://wals.info/chapter/21.

and topicality. The affix -7cJ *-tik*, a diminutive that derives the word 'child' from the root 'person', is a monoexponential derivational suffix. The single-letter suffix -ɔ *-e* attaches to the verb to express the mood (indicative), tense (nonpast), and aspect (imperfective). Finally, the word qc *vi* is a monoexponential interrogative clitic that turns the sentence into a question.

Noun prepositions can additionally encode case. In example 4, the noun 7ʒqv7cJ *tavotik* is inferred to be in the absolutive case despite being unmarked for it. In many other situations, this grammatical case is additionally encoded within the same polyexponential preposition. In example 3b, the word þvɖɔɜ *moþes* indicates that the noun 'egg' is inanimate, paucal, the topic, and in the accusative case.

One noun preposition, bɋ7 *nut* has not fully cumulated, with the noun's number being still separated into a distinct segment.

(5) a. bɋ7 *nut-∅* /nut/ (AN.TOP.ACC-SG)

b. bɋ7vɜ *nut-os* /nu'tos/ (AN.TOP.ACC-PC)

c. bɋ7vb *nut-on* /nu'ton/ (AN.TOP.ACC-PL)

All other noun prepositions are fully cumulated and cannot be separated into their component morphemes.

(6) a. Inanimate Ergative
   i. ðʒ *ða* /ða/ (IN.SG.ERG)
   ii. ðɔɜ *ðes* /ðes/ (IN.PC.ERG)
   iii. ɾɋb *dun* /dun/ (IN.PL.ERG)

b. Inanimate Topic Dative
   i. þvp *mǒk* /mox/ (IN.SG.TOP.DAT)
   ii. þɔJvɜ *mekos* /me'kos/ (IN.PC.TOP.DAT)
   iii. bcJɋb *nikun* /ni 'kun/ (IN.PL.TOP.DAT)

3.1.3 Flexivity

Tavonic nouns, adjectives, and verbs display flexivity, which means that these words are divided into separate classes that receive distinct inflectional allomorphs. On such allomorphs, otherwise identical morphemes take distinct phonological shapes.

Nouns are divided into animate and inanimate genders. These two genders determine which prepositions are used to provide the grammatical context of the noun.

(7) a. ŋc ʒcɱ7
ri bilt
/ri 'bilt/

ri=	*bilt*
AN.PC.ABS=	breath

'breaths'

b. ɱʼɔɗɔŋ
l'eðer
/leˈðer/

le=eðer
IN.PC.ABS=pen

'pens'

In example 7, both ʒcɱʒ *bilt* and ɔɗɔŋ *eðer* are marked for the paucal number and the absolutive case, but because ʒcɱʒ *bilt* is animate and ɔɗɔŋ *eðer* is inanimate, the shape of the prepositions are entirely different.

Although they are distinct, the shapes are often more closely related than in example 7. Example 8 shows the animate and inanimate forms of the plural ergative preposition; the relation between the two forms is much clearer, as only the vowel changes.

(8) a. ɾcb ʒcɱʒ
din bilt
/din 'bilt/

din= *bilt*
AN.PL.ERG= breath

'breaths'

b. ɾɋb ɔɗɔŋ
dun eðer
/dun eˈðer/

dun= *eðer*
IN.PL.ERG= pen

'pens'

Nouns do not show possessive flexivity, as there is no possessive classification.[5] There is only one method of forming a possessive relationship: using the genitive case.

Adjectives also show flexivity since they decline to match the gender of the noun they modify. Each adjective has a distinct animate and inanimate form, with animate adjectives ending in -ʐ -*a*, -c -*i*, or -ɋ -*u* and inanimate adjectives ending in -ɔ -*e* or -ʌ -*o*.

[5]Johanna Nichols and Balthasar Bickel, "Possessive Classification," in *The World Atlas of Language Structures Online*, ed. Matthew S. Dryer and Martin Haspelmath (Leipzig: Max Planck Institute for Evolutionary Anthropology, 2013), http://wals.info/chapter/59.

(9) a. ɜɋ lŋʐbɾc ʒcmȝ
su frandi bilt
/su fran'di 'bilt/

su= *frandi* *bilt*
AN.SG.GEN= visible.AN breath

'of the visible breath'

b. yv lŋʐbɾv ɔd̄ɔŋ
šo frando eðer
/ʃo fran'do e'ðer/

šo= *frando* *eðer*
IN.SG.GEN= visible.IN pen

'of the visible pen'

In example 9, the form of lŋʐbɾc *frandi* changes depending on whether it is modifying an animate noun like ʒcmȝ *bilt* or an inanimate noun like ɔd̄ɔŋ *eðer*.

Verbs are divided into three distinct conjugation classes, each identified by the infinitive form. Class I verb infinitives end in -ʐmc *-ali*, class II verb infinitives end in -ɔmc *-eli*, and class III verb infinitives end in -ɋmc *-uli*.

(10) a. Class I: ʒŋɋdʐzʐmc *bruþat-ali* /bru.θa'ta.li/ 'to handle' (handle-INF)

b. Class II: yɔmc *š-eli* /'ʃe.li/ 'to run' (run-INF)

c. Class III: zɔƀɋmc *teg-uli* /te'gu.li/ 'to worry' (worry-INF)

Beyond just the form of the infinitive, the verb's class determines the entire conjugation paradigm for that verb.

(11) a. Class I: ʒŋɋdʐzʐʒɔ *bruþat-abe* /bru.θa'ta.be/ 'handling' (handle-ACT.PTCP)

b. Class II: ycʒʐ *š-iba* /'ʃi.ba/ 'running' (run-ACT.PTCP)

c. Class III: zɔƀɋʒɔ *teg-ube* /te'gu.be/ 'worrying' (worry-ACT.PTCP)

As shown in example 11, the same inflection takes a different form when attached to a verb of a different class. To form the active participle, ʒŋɋdʐzʐmc *bruþatali* becomes ʒŋɋdʐzʐʒɔ *bruþatabe* and zɔƀɋmc *teguli* becomes zɔƀɋʒɔ *tegube*. Following this pattern, one might expect yɔmc *šeli* to become *yɔʒɔ **šebe*, but instead it becomes ycʒʐ *šiba*.

3.1.4 Synthesis

As discussed in subsection 3.1.1, derivation and verb inflection occurs by attaching affixes to a stem or root, forming singular phonological words. Meanwhile, noun declension occurs using prepositions that mark the grammatical information for the noun. These prepositions are separate phonological words from the nouns themselves.

In all cases, however, inflected forms constitute singular *syntactic* words because the inflections cannot be separated or reordered at all. This means that Tavonic morphology is synthetic.[6]

Tavonic verbs normally inflect to show mood, tense, and aspect, a total of three morpheme categories per word. The maximally inflected form adds negation, a particle that is a separate phonological word but remains a part of the syntactic word of the verb, bringing Tavonic's category-per-word ratio up to 4.[7]

(12) yɡb vbɔJ ʒv:
Šun onek bo.
/ˈʃun oˈnek bo/

šun	*on-ek*	*-bo*
3S.AN.TOP	play-IND.PST.PFV	-NEG

'S/he did not play.'

3.2 Morphological Processes

Tavonic is "predominantly suffixing"[8] and primarily makes use of suffixes and clitics to derive and inflect words. The language does not employ infixation, stem modification, or suprafixation, no prefixation has yet been identified, and reduplication only appears in wordplay and child-directed speech.

3.2.1 Suffixation

Suffixes in Tavonic apply mainly to verbs. All verbal inflections occur via the addition of suffixes, whether phonologically bound or not. This is illustrated in example 13.

(13) a. yvbʐ ɓc7 ʐɲʐd:
Šona git akrağ.
/ʃoˈna git akˈraɣ/

šona	*git*	*akr-ağ*
3P.AN.TOP	3S.IN.ACC	write-IND.PST.RTSP

'They had written it.'

[6]Balthasar Bickel and Johanna Nichols, "Inflectional Synthesis of the Verb," in *The World Atlas of Language Structures Online*, ed. Matthew S. Dryer and Martin Haspelmath (Leipzig: Max Planck Institute for Evolutionary Anthropology, 2013), http://wals.info/chapter/22.

[7]Ibid.

[8]Matthew S. Dryer, "Prefixing vs. Suffixing in Inflectional Morphology," in *The World Atlas of Language Structures Online*, ed. Matthew S. Dryer and Martin Haspelmath (Leipzig: Max Planck Institute for Evolutionary Anthropology, 2013), http://wals.info/chapter/26.

b. þvbɜʐ ɡlɋ7 vɖ bcJc3:
Monsa ufut oþ nikis.
/mon'sa u'fut o*θ* ni'kis/

monsa *uf-ut* *oþ* *nik-is*
1PC.TOP sing-IND.NPST.PFV if be.able-SBJV.NPST.IPFV

'We will sing if we are able.'

c. ɡɜvþʒɔ ƵɲʐLc3
usombe akrapis
/u'som.be ak.ra'pis/

us-ombe *akrapis*
hold-PASS.PTCP.IN letter

'held letter'

d. þc ɖɳv Ƶɲɳvŋɓʐbɯʐ:
Mi þro akrorganta.
/mi '*θ*ro ak.ror'gan.ta/

mi *þro* *akrorg-anta*
IN.SG.TOP that.MED erase-IMP

'Erase that.'

e. þʐbʐ Jʐbɯɔbɯʐ ʒv:
Mana kantenta bo.
/ma'na kan'ten.ta bo/

mana *kant-enta* *-bo*
1P.TOP thank-IMP -NEG

'Don't thank us.'

As discussed in subsection 3.1.4, although the particle ʒv *bo* is a separate phonological word, it functions syntactically as a suffix. This is shown in example 13e where it attaches to the verb Jʐbɯɔbɯʐ *kantenta* to negate it.

Suffixes are also present on adjectives, though only minimally. Adjectives take one of two vowel endings to mark the gender of its referent, with animate adjectives ending in -c *-i*, -ʐ *-a*, or -ɋ *-u* and inanimate adjectives ending in -ɔ *-e* or -v *-o*.

(14) a. ʐʒɱɋbɓʐ *ablunga* /ab.lun'ga/ (AN) vs. ʐʒɱɋbɓɔ *ablunge* /ab.lun'ge/ (IN) 'catlike'
b. Ƶɲʐbɾc *akrandi* /ak.ran'di/ (AN) vs. Ƶɲʐbɾv *akrando* /ak.ran'do/ (IN) 'writable'
c. ʒŋɋɖʐɯʐ *bruþatla* /bru.*θ*at'la/ (AN) vs. ʒŋɋɖʐɯv *bruþatlo* /bru.*θ*at'lo/ (IN) 'manual'
d. lɳʐɖŋɋ *fraþru* /fra*θ*'ru/ (AN) vs. lɳʐɖŋv *fraþro* /fra*θ*'ro/ (IN) 'observant'

Suffixation also occurs regularly in derivational inflection. In fact, several derivational suffixes can be strung together to derive yet more words. Example 15 shows this process.

(15) a. lŋʐmɔc *frali* /'fra.li/ 'to see'
b. lŋʐqɔþ *fravem* /fra'vem/ 'sight'
c. lŋʐqɔþc7mʐ *fravemitla* -v *-o* /fra.vem.it'la/ 'visual'
d. vbʒy *onaš* /o'naʃ/ 'rug'
e. vbʒyɢmɔc *onašuli* /o.na'ʃu.li/ 'to place'
f. vbʒycbɜɢmɔc *onašinsuli* /o.na.ʃin'su.li/ 'to re-place'

In example 15f, the -cbɜ *-ins* affix may not immediately appear to be a suffix, however it should be noted that it is being attached to the end of the *stem* of the word, which is vbʒy- *onaš-*, prior to the verb's infinitive ending -ɢmɔc *-uli*, which is an *inflectional* suffix.

3.2.2 Cliticization

Clitics can be difficult to define in a formal way, and it is therefore worthwhile to explain how certain morphemes in Tavonic can be classified as such.

A 'clitic' is often characterized as "a 'small', prosodically weak, or non-prominent word which fails to respect normal principles of syntactic distribution because it requires a host to which it can attach phonologically".[9] Clitics are different from affixes in that they will typically "cliticize 'promiscuously' to a word of any old category, including uninflectable words which otherwise fail to take any affixes whatever",[10] whereas affixes are limited to only specific parts of speech to which they can connect.[11] Yet, they are different from function words in that they are bound, that is they do not have the free ordering afforded to words.[12]

The primary example of clitics in Tavonic is the noun prepositions. These particles cannot appear alone, conveying solely grammatical, not lexical, information. They are not affixes because they attach to the beginning of the entire noun phrase, no matter what word comes after, rather than attaching directly to the head noun.

(16) a. þvɾ bʐɜ vɹv lŋʐ:
Mod nas oko fra.
/'mod nas o'ko 'fra/

mod	*nas=*	*oko*	*fr-a*
IS.ERG	AN.PC.TOP	dog	see-IND.NPST.IPFV

'I see the dogs.'

[9]Andrew Spencer and Ana Luís, "The Canonical Clitic," chap. 6 in *Canonical Morphology and Syntax*, by Dunstan Brown, Marina Chumakina, and Greville G. Corbett (2012), 123–150, ISBN: 9780199604326, accessed November 25, 2018, doi:10.1093/acprof:oso/9780199604326.001.0001, https://www.academia.edu/4379177/The_canonical_clitic_With_Ana_Lu%C3%ADs_.

[10]Ibid.

[11]Arnold M. Zwicky and Geoffrey K. Pullum, "Cliticization vs. Inflection: English N'T," *Language* 59, no. 3 (1983): 503–505, accessed November 25, 2018, https://web.stanford.edu/~zwicky/ZPCliticsInfl.pdf.

[12]Arnold M. Zwicky, "Clitics and Particles," *Language* 61, no. 2 (1985): 286–290, accessed November 25, 2018, http://babel.ucsc.edu/~hank/mrg.readings/zwicky1985.pdf.

b. þvɾ bʐɜ ɢŋɾʐ vJv lŋʐ:
Mod nas urda oko fra.
/ˈmod nas urˈda oˈko ˈfra/

mod *nas=* *urd-a* *oko* *fr-a*
IS.ERG AN.PC.TOP protected-AN dog see-IND.NPST.IPFV

'I see the protected dogs.'

c. þvɾ bʐɜ 7ɔɜʐŋ ɢŋɾʐ vJv lŋʐ:
Mod nas tesar urda oko fra.
/ˈmod nas teˈsar urˈda oˈko ˈfra/

mod *nas=* *tesar* *urd-a* *oko* *fr-a*
IS.ERG AN.PC.TOP 2PC.GEN protected-AN dog see-IND.NPST.IPFV

'I see your protected dogs.'

d. þvɾ bʐɜ ɜɢ ɔɜvb ɢŋɾʐ vJv lŋʐ:
Mod nas su eson urda oko fra.
/ˈmod nas su eˈson urˈda oˈko ˈfra/

mod *nas=* *su=* *eson* *urd-a* *oko* *fr-a*
IS.ERG AN.PC.TOP AN.SG.GEN farmer protected-AN dog see-IND.NPST.IPFV

'I see the farmer's protected dogs.'

Notice in example 16 how the particle bʐɜ *nas* directly precedes the entire noun phrase, even when separated from the head noun by an adjective (16b), a pronoun (16c), and even another modifying noun and its preposition (16d).

In some cases, the noun prepositions reduce phonologically and attach to the following word. Any time a noun preposition ends with the same vowel with which the following word begins, that vowel is dropped and the preposition is attached orthographically to the following word with an apostrophe.

(17) a. ɱɔ ɔɗɔŋ *le eðer* → ɱ'ɔɗɔŋ *l'eðer* /leˈðer/ 'pens' (IN.PC.ABS-pen)

b. þʐ7c cbʐþ *mati inam* → þʐ7'cbʐþ *mat'inam* /ma.tiˈnam/ 'location' (IN.SG.TOP.ACC-location)

c. bv vJv *no oko* → b'vJv *n'oko* /noˈko/ 'dog' (AN.SG.TOP-pen)

d. ɜɢ ɢŋɾʐ ʐʒɱɢ *su urda ablu* → ɜ'ɢŋɾʐ ʐʒɱɢ *s'urda ablu* /surˈda abˈlu/ 'of the protected cat' (AN.SG.GEN-protected-AN cat)

This phonological reduction occurs no matter whether the following word is the noun the preposition is modifying or not. For example, notice in example 17d that the preposition attaches itself to ɢŋɾʐ *urda* even though it is an adjective modifying the noun ʐʒɱɢ *ablu*.

The other main example of cliticization is the particle qc *vi*. It is used to ask questions and is most often added at the end of a sentence after the verb, as shown in example 18.

(18) bv yɔJvb 7ɡ lŋʒɖŋɡ vJv ɡ3ɡ qc?
No šekon tu fraþru oko usu vi?
/no ʃe'kon tu fraθ'ru o'ko u'su vi/

no=	*šekon*	*tu=*	*fraþr-u*	*oko*	*us-u*	*=vi*
AN.SG.TOP=	runner	AN.SG.ACC=	observant-AN	dog	have-IND.NPST.IPFV	=Q

'Does the runner have an observant dog?'

A speaker can, however, move the interrogative particle earlier in the sentence to focus the question on some specific element.

(19) a. bv yɔJvb qc 7ɡ lŋʒɖŋɡ vJv ɡ3ɡ?
No šekon vi tu fraþru oko usu?
/no ʃe'kon vi tu fraθ'ru o'ko u'su/

no=	*šekon*	*=vi*	*tu=*	*fraþr-u*	*oko*	*us-u*
AN.SG.TOP=	runner	=Q	AN.SG.ACC=	observant-AN	dog	have-IND.NPST.IPFV

'Is it the runner who has an observant dog?'

b. bv yɔJvb 7ɡ lŋʒɖŋɡ qc vJv ɡ3ɡ?
No šekon tu fraþru vi oko usu?
/no ʃe'kon tu fraθ'ru vi o'ko u'su/

no=	*šekon*	*tu=*	*fraþr-u*	*=vi*	*oko*	*us-u*
AN.SG.TOP=	runner	AN.SG.ACC=	observant-AN	=Q	dog	have-IND.NPST.IPFV

'Is it an *observant* dog the runner has?'

c. bv yɔJvb 7ɡ lŋʒɖŋɡ vJv qc ɡ3ɡ?
No šekon tu fraþru oko vi usu?
/no ʃe'kon tu fraθ'ru o'ko vi u'su/

no=	*šekon*	*tu=*	*fraþr-u*	*oko*	*=vi*	*us-u*
AN.SG.TOP=	runner	AN.SG.ACC=	observant-AN	dog	=Q	have-IND.NPST.IPFV

'Is it an observant *dog* the runner has?'

3.3 Locus of Marking

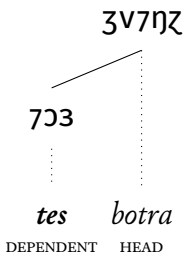
Tavonic is almost exclusively dependent-marking.[13] This can readily be seen in the expression of possessive relationships, where the dependent is marked with the genitive case.

[13]Johanna Nichols and Balthasar Bickel, "Locus of Marking: Whole-language Typology," in *The World Atlas of Language Structures Online*, ed. Matthew S. Dryer and Martin Haspelmath (Leipzig: Max Planck Institute for Evolutionary Anthropology, 2013), http://wals.info/chapter/25.

(20) a. ʔɔɜ ʒvʔŋʐ
tes botra
/ˈtes botˈra/

tes *botra*
2S.**GEN** wife

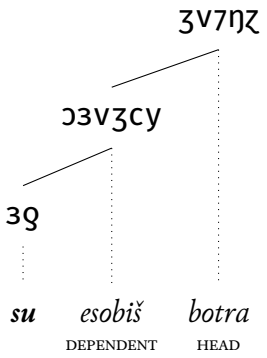
'your wife'



b. ɜϱ ɔɜvʒcy ʒvʔŋʐ
su esobiš botra
/su e.soˈbiʃ botˈra/

su= *esobiš* *botra*
AN.SG.**GEN**= patriot wife

'the patriot's wife'



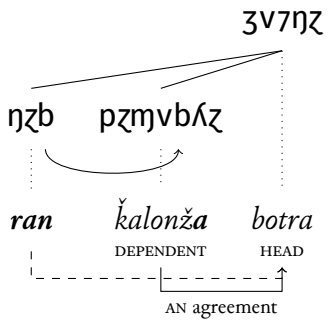
In example 20a, 'you' are grammatically in possession of ʒvʔŋʐ *botra* 'wife'; the possessee forms the head of the phrase while it is modified by the possessor, which receives the genitive inflection. In example 20b, ʒvʔŋʐ *botra* is still the possessee and thus the head of the phrase while the genitive is marked on the dependent, ɔɜvʒcy *esobiš* 'patriot', using a noun preposition.

Tavonic also shows dependent marking when modifying nouns with adjectives.

(21) ŋʐb pʐɱvbʎʐ ʒvʔŋʐ
ran ǩalonža botra
/ran xa.lonˈʒa botˈra/

ran= *ǩalonž-**a*** *botra*
AN.PL.ABS= husbandless-**AN** woman

'husbandless women'



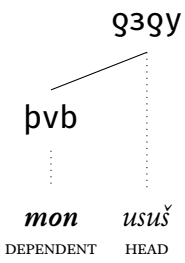
In example 21, while the head noun ʒvʔŋʐ *botra* is marked for animacy with ŋʐb *ran*, the dependent modifying adjective pʐɱvbʎʐ *ǩalonža* 'husbandless' takes the -ʐ *-a* animate ending to match.

At the clause level, Tavonic is solely dependent-marking. Verbs have no grammatical inflections that indicate the grammatical role of any noun phrases within the clause, with that information being marked only on the verb's dependents, the noun phrases.

(22) a. þvb ɢɜɢy:
Mon ususˇ.
/'mon u'suʃ/

mon *us-uš*
IS.**TOP** sing-IND.NPST.RTSP

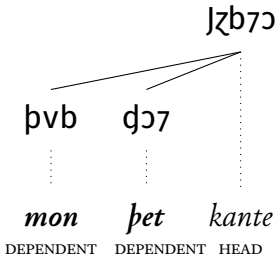
'I have sung.'



b. þvb ɖɔɹ ɟʐbɹɔ:
Mon þet kante.
/'mon 'θet kan'te/

mon ***þet*** *kant-e*
IS.**TOP** 2S.**ACC** thank-IND.NPST.IMP

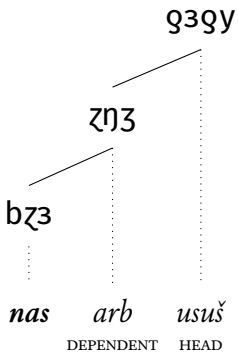
'I thank you.'



c. bʐɜ ʐɳʒ ɢɜɢy:
Nas arb ususˇ.
/nas 'arb u'suʃ/

nas= *arb* *us-uš*
AN.PC.**TOP**= bird sing-IND.NPST.RTSP

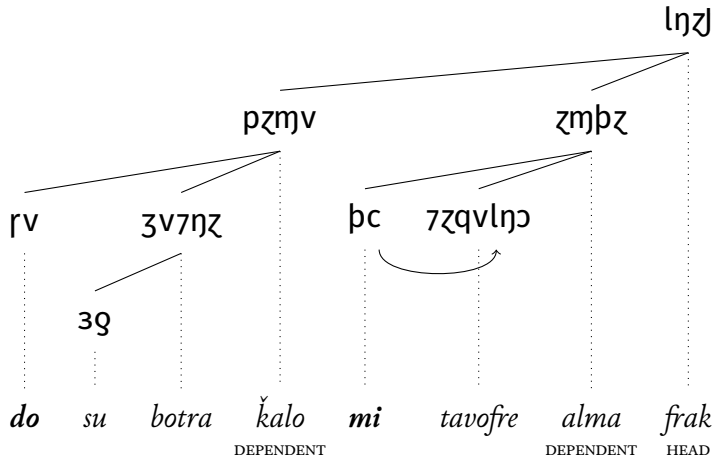
'The birds have sung.'



d. ɾv ɜɢ ʒv7ɳʐ pʐɱv þc 7ʐqvlŋɔ ʐɱþʐ lŋʐJ:
Do su botra ǩalo mi tavofre alma frak.
/do su bot'ra xa'lo mi ta.vof're al'ma 'frak/

do= *su*= *botra* *ǩalo* ***mi***= *tavofr-e* *alma* *fr-ak*
AN.SG.**ERG**= AN.SG.GEN= woman husband IN.SG.**TOP**= inhabited-IN house see-IND.PST.PFV

'The woman's husband saw the inhabited house.'



In example 22a, the pronoun ꝑvb *mon* is declined to indicate it is the topic of the sentence while the verb ꝗɜꝗy *usuš*, despite conjugating for mood, tense, and aspect, is not marked for this role. Example 22b similarly marks the two pronouns ꝑvb *mon* and ꝺɔ7 *þet* for their roles in the sentence as topic and object while the verb ȷʐbכɔ *kante* does not inflect to indicate these roles. When nouns are used instead of pronouns, as in examples 22c–d, the nouns are marked for their grammatical role by their prepositions, their own dependents, while the head verb remains unmarked for these roles.

4

Grammatical Categories

Tavonic words can be divided into several different categories, or parts of speech. While the previous chapter dealt with the general mechanisms of marking words, this chapter will examine each of the various parts of speech in order to define their morphology more closely. The discussion will begin with an examination of nouns, pronouns, and verbs. Following this will be a discussion of the remaining parts of speech, including adverbs, numerals, and conjunctions.

4.1 Nouns

Nouns in Tavonic decline to express number and gender (animacy) and are marked for case to indicate their grammatical role within the clause. As discussed in chapter 3, this inflection takes place not directly on the noun itself but on prepositional clitics that convey this grammatical meaning.[1] For a full illustration of the declension paradigms, compare Table 4.1 and Table 4.2. As shown in these tables, Tavonic noun inflections are never syncretic.[2]

4.1.1 Proper Names and Common Nouns

Common nouns are those that behave in a prototypical way with regards to their morphology and syntax. On the other hand, "[p]roper names are nouns that are used to address and identify particular persons or culturally significant personages or places. Proper names are used to refer to specific individuals both speaker and hearer can identify, therefore they do not usually appear with... modifiers, possessors, [identifying] relative clauses, or other devices that render nouns more identifiable."[3]

[1] Matthew S. Dryer, "Position of Case Affixes," in *The World Atlas of Language Structures Online*, ed. Matthew S. Dryer and Martin Haspelmath (Leipzig: Max Planck Institute for Evolutionary Anthropology, 2013), https://wals.info/chapter/51.

[2] Matthew Baerman and Dunstan Brown, "Case Syncretism," in *The World Atlas of Language Structures Online*, ed. Matthew S. Dryer and Martin Haspelmath (Leipzig: Max Planck Institute for Evolutionary Anthropology, 2013), http://wals.info/chapter/28.

[3] Thomas E. Payne, *Describing Morphosyntax: A Guide for Field Linguists* (Cambridge, United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press, 2006), 39, ISBN: 0-521-58805-7, http://www.cambridge.org/vi/academic/subjects/languages-linguistics/grammar-and-syntax/describing-morphosyntax-guide-field-linguists.

Table 4.1: Tavonic Animate Noun Declension Paradigm for the word ʒŋɡʤ *bruþa* 'hand' or 'tool'

Case	SG	PC	PL
ABS	*bruþa*	*ri bruþa*	*ran bruþa*
ERG	*do bruþa*	*das bruþa*	*din bruþa*
ACC	*tu bruþa*	*tos bruþa*	*ton bruþa*
DAT	*ke bruþa*	*kas bruþa*	*ken bruþa*
GEN	*su bruþa*	*sar bruþa*	*san bruþa*
TOP	*no bruþa*	*nas bruþa*	*nan bruþa*
TOP.ACC	*nut bruþa*	*nutos bruþa*	*nuton bruþa*
TOP.DAT	*nek bruþa*	*nekas bruþa*	*naken bruþa*
TOP.GEN	*nus bruþa*	*nosar bruþa*	*nosan bruþa*

Table 4.2: Tavonic Inanimate Noun Declension Paradigm for the word ʏɔþ *šem* 'busyness'

Case	SG	PC	PL
ABS	*šem*	*le šem*	*ren šem*
ERG	*ða šem*	*ðes šem*	*dun šem*
ACC	*ti šem*	*þis šem*	*ten šem*
DAT	*ǩo šem*	*kos šem*	*ǩun šem*
GEN	*šo šem*	*se šem*	*šen šem*
TOP	*mi šem*	*mes šem*	*nun šem*
TOP.ACC	*mati šem*	*moþes šem*	*noten šem*
TOP.DAT	*moǩ šem*	*mekos šem*	*nikun šem*
TOP.GEN	*miš šem*	*mise šem*	*nušen šem*

(1)

	Proper names	**Common nouns**
a.	ŋvbbɔ	lcmʃ
	Ronne	*fild*
	'Ronne'	'doll'
b.	ʃɔ ŋvbbɔ	pv lcmʃ
	ke Ronne	*ǩo fild*
	'to Ronne'	'to the doll'
c.	ŋc ŋvbbɔ	mɲɔ lcmʃ
	ri Ronne	*le fild*
	'Ronne and associates'	'a few dolls'
d.	ʔ ʐŋɜc ŋvbbɔ	ʐŋɜc lcmʃ
	arsi Ronne	*arsi fild*
	'three Ronnes'	'three dolls'
e.	ʔ ʐʒmɡ7mʒ ŋvbbɔ	ʐʒmɡ7mɲv lcmʃ
	ablutla Ronne	*ablutlo fild*
	'a feline Ronne'	'a feline doll'

f. ʔ þvŋ ɜgJ lŋʐd ʟgʒ ŋvbbɔ
mor suk fraǧ put Ronne
'the Ronne that I had seen'

þvŋ ɓʐJɔ lŋʐd ʟgʒ lcmʃ
mor gake fraǧ put fild
'the doll that I had seen'

In all of the examples above, the treatment of the common noun *fild* is perfectly acceptable. However, whenever the noun is modified in some way, such as by specifying the number, adding a descriptive adjective, or adding an identifying relative clause, such as in examples 1d–f, the treatment of the proper name *Ronne* is questionable. These expressions are possible, but the context must be such that the specific referent is not automatically identifiable, which is unusual for proper names. Meanwhile, using the paucal or plural form with a proper name, such as in example 1c, changes the meaning to signify the proper name *and their associates*. See more about the associative plural in subsection 4.1.3.

4.1.2 Gender

Grammatical gender in Tavonic consists of two[4] non-sex-based[5] classes based primarily on semantic ontological properties.[6] The animate gender refers primarily to entities that are considered alive or are associated with life, movement, change, or dynamism. The inanimate gender refers primarily to entities that are not alive and are generally stationary or abstract. Grammatical gender in Tavonic can also be referred to as "animacy" since that is what the genders denote. Examples of nouns in each gender can be seen in example 2.

(2) a. Animate nouns:
ʒvʔŋʐ *botra* 'woman'; pʐɱv *ǩalo* 'man'; ɔɜvb *eson* 'farmer'; vJvʔcJ *okotik* 'puppy'; ɋŋʃʐʔcɱ *urdatil* 'ward'; ʒcɱʔ *bilt* 'breath'

b. Inanimate nouns:
ɔɜvʔcJ *esotik* 'country'; ʃɔʃɋ *dedu* 'sky'; ɔɱʒc *elbi* 'egg'; ɋɜɋʃcŋ *usudir* 'basket'; ʐJŋʐʟcɜ *akrapis* 'letter'; lŋʐʃcŋ *fradir* 'glasses'

Since the nouns themselves are not directly inflected, with grammatical information instead shown on prepositional particles, it is impossible to tell what gender a noun is based solely on its word form.

Some nouns are able to change category in certain circumstances. For example, plants and animals switch from the animate gender to the inanimate gender when they serve as food. Further, there exist some duplicates with otherwise identical words declining to opposite genders.

[4]Greville G. Corbett, "Number of Genders," in *The World Atlas of Language Structures Online*, ed. Matthew S. Dryer and Martin Haspelmath (Leipzig: Max Planck Institute for Evolutionary Anthropology, 2013), http://wals.info/chapter/30.

[5]Greville G. Corbett, "Sex-based and Non-sex-based Gender Systems," in *The World Atlas of Language Structures Online*, ed. Matthew S. Dryer and Martin Haspelmath (Leipzig: Max Planck Institute for Evolutionary Anthropology, 2013), https://wals.info/chapter/31.

[6]Greville G. Corbett, "Systems of Gender Assignment," in *The World Atlas of Language Structures Online*, ed. Matthew S. Dryer and Martin Haspelmath (Leipzig: Max Planck Institute for Evolutionary Anthropology, 2013), https://wals.info/chapter/32.

4.1.3 Number

Grammatical number in Tavonic consists of three numbers, all of which are coded on the noun prepositions.[7] The singular is always used when there is only one of the referent noun, the paucal is used when there are two to five of the referent noun, and the plural is used when there are more than five of the referent noun.

(3) a. ɜϘ cƀƶ *su ima* /su iˈma/ ‘of mother’ (SG.AN.GEN= mother)

b. ɜƶŋ cƀƶ *sar ima* /sar iˈma/ ‘of (some) mothers’ (PC.AN.GEN= mother)

c. ɜƶb cƀƶ *san ima* /san iˈma/ ‘of (several) mothers’ (PL.AN.GEN= mother)

When a numeral is used to identify the number of a referent noun, the singular is used instead of the paucal or plural, even if without the numeral the other forms would be used.[8]

(4) a. Ɉ’ɔԃ cƀƶ *k’eþ ima* /keθ iˈma/ ‘to one mother’ (SG.AN.DAT=one mother)

b. Ɉɔ Ƶŋɜc cƀƶ *ke arsi ima* /ke arˈsi iˈma/ ‘to three mothers’ (SG.AN.DAT= three mother), not *Ɉƶɜ Ƶŋɜc cƀƶ **kas arsi ima*

c. Ɉɔ ɜŋϘԃ Ƶʒvþ cƀƶ *ke bruð abom ima* /ke bruð aˈbom iˈma/ ‘to seven mothers’ (SG.AN.DAT= five two mother), not *Ɉɔb ɜŋϘԃ Ƶʒvþ cƀƶ **ken bruð abom ima*

Most nouns that represent concrete entities are countable, including some words that in English are uncountable like corn, and by default they are used in the singular form unlike English words like pants or glasses. However, many entities that are not easily split into discreet parts like liquids, grains, and certain abstract concepts are uncountable, such as ɔɱʒv *elto* /elˈto/ ‘water’. Occasionally, when a word’s semantics cover multiple concepts, a word can be variably countable or uncountable; when ɾɔɾϘ *dedu* /deˈdu/ is used to mean ‘sky’ or ‘heaven’, it is uncountable, but when it is used to mean ‘ceiling’, it is countable and can be made paucal or plural.

People’s names can also be declined to the paucal or plural number to indicate the associative plural.[9] This form is used to refer to a person and the other people associated with that person. For example, ŋc ʒvɱ *ri Bol* /ri bol/ (PC.AN.ABS Bol) refers to Bol and two to five other people associated with him. Similarly, ŋƵb vʒɔ *ran Ote* /ran oˈte/ (PL.AN.ABS Ote) refers to Ote and the group he is with.

[7]Matthew S. Dryer, “Coding of Nominal Plurality,” in *The World Atlas of Language Structures Online*, ed. Matthew S. Dryer and Martin Haspelmath (Leipzig: Max Planck Institute for Evolutionary Anthropology, 2013), https://wals.info/chapter/33.

[8]Martin Haspelmath, “Occurrence of Nominal Plurality,” in *The World Atlas of Language Structures Online*, ed. Matthew S. Dryer and Martin Haspelmath (Leipzig: Max Planck Institute for Evolutionary Anthropology, 2013), https://wals.info/chapter/34.

[9]Michael Daniel and Edith Moravcsik, “The Associative Plural,” in *The World Atlas of Language Structures Online*, ed. Matthew S. Dryer and Martin Haspelmath (Leipzig: Max Planck Institute for Evolutionary Anthropology, 2013), https://wals.info/chapter/36.

4.1.4 Case

As shown in Tables 4.1 and 4.2, Tavonic noun phrases decline to five different grammatical cases[10] in order to show their role in the sentence. These cases are governed by the phrase's verb or assigned to adjuncts depending on their purpose or meaning. As shown in the same declension tables, any of these grammatical cases can be replaced by or combined with topic markers. See subsection 4.1.5 for more information on topicality.

Absolutive and Intransitive

The intransitive case marks a noun or noun phrase that serves as the subject of an intransitive verb like ɣɔɱɕ *šeli* 'to run' or a transitive verb used intransitively like ɢlɢɱɕ *ufuli* 'to sing' (without naming the object, what is being sung). This means that when a verb has only a single argument, that argument will by default be in the intransitive case. That is true whether the subject is serving like an agent as in words like ɣɔɱɕ *šeli* 'to run' or ɢlɢɱɕ *ufuli* 'to sing' or when the subject is serving more like a patient as in words like vŋdʐɱɕ *orðali* 'to fall'.

(5) a. ƥvɱɱɢŋ ɣɔɖː
Mollur šeþ.
/moˈlːur ˈʃeθ/

∅= *Mollur* *š-eþ*
AN.SG.INTR= Mollur run-IND.NPST.PRG

'Mollur is running.'

b. ŋʼcƥʐ ɢlɢː
R'ima ufu.
/riˈma uˈfu/

ri=ima *uf-u*
AN.PC.INTR=mother sing-IND.NPST.IPFV

'The mothers sing.'

c. ŋɔb lcɱɾ vŋdʐJː
Ren fild orðak.
/ren ˈfild orˈðak/

ren= *fild* *orð-ak*
IN.PL.INTR= doll fall-IND.PST.PFV

'The dolls fell.'

Note that the singular intransitive case is entirely unmarked by any preposition. This is true whether the noun is animate or inanimate.

[10] Oliver A. Iggesen, "Number of Cases," in *The World Atlas of Language Structures Online*, ed. Matthew S. Dryer and Martin Haspelmath (Leipzig: Max Planck Institute for Evolutionary Anthropology, 2013), https://wals.info/chapter/49.

(6) a. ʐɱʂþ ʂɱɾɔɾɔʏː
Alum uldeteš.
/aˈlum ul.deˈteʃ/

∅=	*alum*	*uldet-eš*	
AN.SG.INTR=	cloud	change-IND.NPST.RTSP	

'The cloud has changed.'

b. ʐɱþʐɖ ʂɱɾɔɾɔʏː
Almaþ uldeteš.
/alˈmaθ ul.deˈteʃ/

∅=	*almaþ*	*uldet-eš*	
IN.SG.INTR=	village	change-IND.NPST.RTSP	

'The village has changed.'

However, the subject of certain transitive verbs will also take the intransitive case if the semantic meaning of the verb is stative. See section 4.1.4 Dative for more information on this. Since it is used in these situations, and since the intransitive is the citation form, the case is normally referred to as the absolutive case, even when used intransitively. These terms are interchangeable.

(7) ɾɔɳ ɹɔ ʐɳʒ lɳʐ qcʔ
Ter ke arb fra vi?
/ter ke arb ˈfra vi/

ter	*ke=*	*arb*	*fr-a*		*=vi*
2S.ABS	AN.SG.DAT=	bird	see-IND.NPST.IPFV		=Q

'Do you see a bird?'

The absolutive case is frequently used with postpositions to indicate a location where or through which an action is taken, for example being placed at, on, or in something.

(8) a. ʐʒɱʂ vbʐʏ ɔ vbɔɹː
Ablu onaš e onek.
/abˈlu oˈnaʃ e oˈnek/

∅=	*ablu*	∅=	*onaš*	*e*	*on-ek*	
AN.SG.ABS=	cat	IN.SG.ABS=	rug	on	play-IND.PST.PFV	

'The cat played on the rug.'

b. þvɾ ɾc ɔbbcɜ ɱʼɔɱʒc ʐɳɹʂ dcɳʐɹː
Mod ti ennis l'elbi arku ğirak.
/mod ti eˈnːis lelˈbi arˈku ɣiˈrak/

mod	*ti=*	*ennis*	*le=elbi*		*arku*	*ğir-ak*	
IS.ERG	IN.SG.ACC=	ball	IN.PC.ABS=egg		above	throw-IND.PST.PFV	

'I threw the ball over the eggs.'

When an action is done ‘with’ or ‘without’ a noun, the absolutive case will be used.

(9) vJv ʐʒɱɡ þv vbɔɖ:
Oko ablu mo oneþ.
/oˈko abˈlu mo oˈneθ/

∅=	*oko*	*∅=*	*ablu*	*mo*	*on-eþ*
AN.SG.ABS=	dog	AN.SG.ABS=	cat	with	play-IND.NPST.PRG

‘The dog is playing with the cat.’

The absolutive case is also used when directly addressing someone in a vocative function. The noun functioning in this way is often placed at the beginning or end of the sentence separated by a pause in speech or a comma in writing.

(10) a. ɱɔŋJ· yɔʒʐb7ʐ:
Lerk, šebanta.
/ˈlerk, ʃeˈban.ta/

∅=	*Lerk*	*šeb-anta*
AN.SG.ABS=	Lerk	run-IMP

‘Run, Lerk.’

b. ɜɡɾ 7ɡ 7ʐqv7cJ ɡŋɾʐ7ɔɖ· ɔŋþɔ:
Sud tu tavotik urdateþ, Erme.
/sud tu ta.voˈtik ur.daˈteθ erˈme/

sud	*tu=*	*tavotik*	*urdat-eþ*	*∅=*	*Erme*
3S.AN.ERG	AN.SG.ACC=	child	guard-IND.NPST.PRG	AN.SG.ABS=	Erme

‘He is guarding the child, Erme.’

Ergative

The ergative case marks a noun or noun phrase that serves as the subject of an active transitive verb or any ditransitive verb. This means that when a verb has multiple arguments and the semantic meaning of the verb is active, the subject argument will by default by in the ergative case.

(11) a. ɾv 7ɱɡbɾʐ 7c ʐJŋʐʟcɜ ɔɖɔŋʒʏ:
Do Tlunda ti akrapis eðeraš.
/do tlunˈda ti ak.raˈpis e.ðeˈraʃ/

do=	*Tlunda*	*ti=*	*akrapis*	*eðer-aš*
AN.SG.ERG=	Tlunda	IN.SG.ACC=	letter	pen-IND.NPST.RTSP

‘Tlunda has penned a letter.’

b. ɾʐɜ vJv 7ɋ ʐʒɱɋ vJv7ʐƀ:
Das oko tu ablu okotam.
/das oˈko tu abˈlu o.koˈtam/

das=	*oko*	*tu=*	*ablu*	*okot-am*
AN.PC.ERG=	dog	AN.SG.ACC=	cat	chase-IND.PST.IPFV

'The dogs chased the cat.'

c. ɾcb ʐqv 7ɔb ɋɜɋɾcŋ qcɜʐd:
Din avo ten usudir visağ.
/din aˈvo ten u.suˈdir viˈsaɣ/

din=	*avo*	*ten=*	*usudir*	*vis-ağ*
AN.PL.ERG=	father	IN.PL.ACC=	basket	take.away-IND.PST.RTSP

'The father and his associates had taken away the baskets.'

Accusative

The accusative case marks a noun or noun phrase that serves as the direct object of an active transitive verb or any ditransitive verb.

(12) a. ɾv ʐɲʐJvb ɖcɜ ɔđɔɲcJ ʐɱƀʐ ɔ vbʐyɋJ:
Do akrakon þis eðerik alma e onašuk.
/do ak.raˈkon θis e.ðeˈrik alˈma e o.naˈʃuk/

do=	*akrakon*	*þis=*	*eðerik*	*alma*	*e*	*onaš-uk*
AN.SG.ERG=	writer	IN.PC.ACC=	pencil	house	in	place-IND.PST.PFV

'The writer placed the pencils in the house.'

b. ɾv yɋɜ ʒv7ɳʐ 7c yɋɜ ʐɲʐʟcɜ ɋɱɾɔ7ɋJ:
Do šus botra ti šus akrapis uldetuk.
/do ʃus botˈra ti ʃus ak.raˈpis ul.deˈtuk/

do=	*šus*	*botra*	*ti=*	*šus*	*akrapis*	*uldet-uk*
AN.SG.ERG=	3p.AN.GEN	wife	IN.SG.ACC=	3p.AN.GEN	letter	change-IND.PST.PFV

'His wife changed his letter.'

Dative

The dative case marks a noun or noun phrase that serves as the indirect object of a ditransitive verb, a recipient of an action, or the entity for whose benefit or detriment the action is taken.

(13) ɾv ɔɜvb 7c ɔbbcɜ ȷɔ vȷv ɾŋʒy:
Do eson ti ennis ke oko draš.
/do eˈson ti eˈnːis ke oˈko ˈdraʃ/

do=	*eson*	*ti=*	*ennis*	*ke=*	*oko*	*dr-aš*
AN.SG.ERG=	farmer	IN.SG.ACC=	ball	AN.SG.DAT=	dog	give-IND.NPST.RTSP

'The farmer has given the dog a ball.'

Certain monotransitive verbs are used with the absolutive and dative cases instead of the ergative and accusative cases. These tend to be stative verbs in which the object of the verb is unaffected by the action or there is little volition on the part of the subject.

(14) a. þvŋ 7ɔȷ 7ɔɓɋ:
Mor tek tegu.
/mor tek teˈgu/

mor	*tek*	*teg-u*
IS.ABS	2S.DAT	worry-IND.NPST.IPFV

'I worry for you.'

b. ŋʐb ɋŋɾʐ7vb ȷɔb ɋlɋȷvb ȷɔd̄ʐþ:
Ran urdaton ken ufukon keðam.
/ran urˌdaˈton ken uˌfuˈkon keˈðam/

ran=	*urdaton*	*ken=*	*ufukon*	*keð-am*
AN.PL.ABS=	guard	AN.PL.DAT=	singer	admire-IND.PST.IPFV

'The guards admired the singers.'

When a verb is done on behalf of or for someone or something, the beneficiary of that action will be declined to the dative and followed by the postposition ɱc *li* /li/ 'for'.

(15) a. ɜɋŋ ȷʐɜ yɋɜ ʒv7ŋʒyɋ7 ɱc vqɔ:
Sur kas šus botrašut li ove.
/sur kas ʃus botˌraˈʃut li oˈve/

sur	*kas=*	*šus*	*botrašut*	*li*	*ov-e*
3S.AN.ABS	AN.PC.DAT=	3S.AN.GEN	fiancée	for	cook-IND.NPST.IPFV

'He cooks for his fiancée and her friends.'

b. ɾv ʒɱcƀqƶ 7ϑ vJv7cJ Jɔ yϑɜ ʐqv ɱc ϑŋɾƶ7ɔԁ:
Do Blimva tu okotik ke šus avo li urdateþ.
/do blim'va tu o.ko'tik ke ʃus a'vo li ur.da'teθ/

do=	*Blimva*	*tu=*	*okotik*	*ke=*	*šus*	*avo*	*li*
AN.SG.ERG=	Blimva	AN.SG.ACC=	puppy	AN.SG.DAT=	3S.AN.GEN	father	for

urdat-eþ
protect-IND.NPST.PRG

'Blimva is protecting the puppy for her father.'

The dative case can also be used in an allative sense to express movement to or toward.

(16) ƀvŋ ƿv ʐɱƀƶ ʒc yɔʒƶ:
Mor ǩo alma bi šeba.
/mor xo al'ma bi ʃe'ba/

mor	*ǩo=*	*alma*	*to*	*šeb-a*
IS.AN	IN.SG.DAT=	house	to	run-IND.NPST.IPFV

'I run to the house.'

This can result in subtle changes in meaning when used with ditransitive verbs.

(17) a. ƀvɾ ԁcɜ ɔbbcɜ 7ɔJ dcŋƶ:
Mod þis ennis tek ǧira.
/mod θis e'nːis tek ɣi'ra/

mod	*þis=*	*ennis*	*tek*	*ǧir-a*
IS.ERG	IN.PC.ACC=	ball	2S.DAT	throw-IND.NPST.IPFV

'I throw the balls to you.'

b. ƀvɾ ԁcɜ ɔbbcɜ 7ɔJ ʒc dcŋƶ:
Mod þis ennis tek bi ǧira.
/mod θis e'nːis tek bi ɣi'ra/

mod	*þis=*	*ennis*	*tek*	*bi*	*ǧir-a*
IS.ERG	IN.PC.ACC=	ball	2S.DAT	at	throw-IND.NPST.IPFV

'I throw the balls at you.'

Notice in example 17a that 7ɔJ *tek* is the recipient of the action while in example 17b 7ɔJ *tek* is the target of the action.

Genitive

The genitive case is used to mark the possessor of a noun or noun phrase.

(18) ɜɋ ɓvɱ7ɋ ʒv7ŋʐ þvJ lŋz:
Su Goltu botra mok fra.
/su gol'tu bot'ra mok 'fra/

∅=	*su=*	*Goltu*	*botra*	*mok*	*fr-a*
AN.SG.ABS=	AN.SG.GEN=	Goltu	wife	IS.DAT	see-IND.NPST.IPFV

'Goltu's wife sees me.'

Just like other attributives, the genitive phrase will occur between the possessee and its declension clitic.

(19) a. ɾv ɜɋ ɜʐŋɜʐ vJv 7ɋ þvɜ ʐʒɱɋ vJv7ʐdʐʕ
Do su Zarsa oko tu mos ablu okotaða!
/do su zar'sa o'ko tu mos ab'lu o.ko.ta'ða/

do=	*su=*	*Zarsa*	*oko*	*tu=*	*mos*	*ablu*	*okot-aða*
AN.SG.ERG=	AN.SG.GEN=	Zarsa	dog	AN.SG.ACC=	IS.GEN	cat	chase-IND.PST.PRG

'Zarsa's dog was chasing my cat!'

b. þvɾ 7c ɔbbcɜ Jɔ ɜɋ cbJc vJv dcŋz:
Mod ti ennis ke su Inkɨ oko ǧira.
/mod ti e'nːis ke su in'ki o'ko ɣi'ra/

mod	*þis=*	*ennis*	*ke=*	*su=*	*Inkɨ*	*oko*	*ǧir-a*
IS.ERG	IN.SG.ACC=	ball	AN.SG.DAT=	AN.SG.GEN=	Inki	dog	throw-IND.NPST.IPFV

'I throw the ball to Inki's dog.'

When a verb is done because of or due to someone or something, the cause of that action will be declined to the genitive and followed by the postposition ɱc *li* /li/ 'because of'.

(20) a. ɜɋŋ ɜɋ yɋɜ ʒv7ŋʑyɋ7 ɱc lɋɜʐdʐ ʒʐɜ vqɔJ:
Sur su šus botrašut li puzaða bas ovek.
/sur su ʃus bot.ra'ʃut li pu'za.ða bas o'vek/

sur	*su=*	*šus*	*botrašut*	*li*	*puz-aða*	*bas*
3S.AN.ABS	AN.SG.GEN=	3S.AN.GEN	fiancée	because.of	cry-IND.PST.PRG	REL.NRTRV

ov-ek
cook-IND.PST.PFV

'He cooked because his fiancée was crying.'

b. ɾv ʒɱcƀqƶ 7ϑ vJv7cJ 3ϑ yϑ3 ƶqv ɱc ϑɳɾƶ7ɔɖ:
Do Blimva tu okotik su šus avo li urdateþ.
/do blim'va tu o.ko'tik su ʃus a'vo li ur.da'teθ/

do=	*Blimva*	*tu=*	*okotik*	*su=*	*šus*	*avo*	*li*
AN.SG.ERG=	Blimva	AN.SG.ACC=	puppy	AN.SG.GEN=	3S.AN.GEN	father	because.of

urdat-eþ
protect-IND.NPST.PRG

'Blimva is protecting the puppy from her father.'

The genitive can also be used in an ablative sense to express movement from or away.

(21) ƀvŋ yv ƶɱƀƶ ƃϑ yɔ3ƶ:
Mor šo alma gu šeba.
/mor ʃo al'ma gu ʃe'ba/

mor	*šo=*	*alma*	*to*	*šeb-a*
IS.AN	IN.SG.GEN=	house	from	run-IND.NPST.IPFV

'I run from the house.'

4.1.5 Topicality

Several noun cases have variants that mark a noun as the topic of a discourse. The topic is the entity most closely associated with the higher-level theme of the paragraph.

The case preposition that encodes *only* topicality completely replaces the case marking for a noun that is in the absolutive or the ergative.

(22) a. bv ƀvɱɱϑŋ yɔɖ:
No Mollur šeþ.
/no mo'lːur 'ʃeθ/

no=	*Mollur*	*š-eþ*
AN.SG.TOP=	Mollur	run-IND.NPST.PRG

'Mollur is running.'

b. ɖƶb Jɔ ƶŋ3 lŋƶ qcʔ
Þan ke arb fra vi?
/θan ke arb 'fra vi/

þan	*ke=*	*arb*	*fr-a*	*=vi*
2S.TOP	AN.SG.DAT=	bird	see-IND.NPST.IPFV	=Q

'Do you see a bird?'

c. bʐɜ vJv 7ɢ ʐʒɱɢ vJv7ʐƀ:
Nas oko tu ablu okotam.
/nas oˈko tu abˈlu o.koˈtam/

nas=	*oko*	*tu=*	*ablu*	*okot-am*
AN.PC.TOP=	dog	AN.SG.ACC=	cat	chase-IND.PST.IPFV

'The dogs chased the cat.'

This case preposition also completely replaces the accusative and dative cases, but only in certain situations when the intended case is inferable. In other words, it replaces the accusative case only when the ergative is present within the sentence, it replaces the dative in a monotransitive sentence only when the absolutive case is present, and it replaces the dative in a ditransitive sentence only when both the ergative and the accusative are present.

(23) a. ɾv yɢɜ ʒv7ɳʐ ƀc yɢɜ ʐJɳʐʟcɜ ɢɱɾɔ7ɢJ:
Do šus botra mi šus akrapis uldetuk.
/do ʃus botˈra mi ʃus ak.raˈpis ul.deˈtuk/

do=	*šus*	*botra*	*mi=*	*šus*	*akrapis*	*uldet-uk*
AN.SG.ERG=	3p.AN.GEN	wife	IN.SG.TOP=	3p.AN.GEN	letter	change-IND.PST.PFV

'His wife changed his letter.'

b. ŋʐb ɢŋɾʐ7vb bʐb ɢlɢJvb Jɔd̄ʐƀ:
Ran urdaton nan ufukon keðam.
/ran ur.daˈton nan u.fuˈkon keˈðam/

ran=	*urdaton*	*nan=*	*ufukon*	*keð-am*
AN.PL.ABS=	guard	AN.PL.TOP=	singer	admire-IND.PST.IPFV

'The guards admired the singers.'

c. ɾv ɔɜvb 7c ɔbbcɜ bʼvJv ɾŋʑy:
Do eson ti ennis nʼoko draš.
/do eˈson ti eˈnːis noˈko ˈdraʃ/

do=	*eson*	*ti=*	*ennis*	*no=oko*	*dr-aš*
AN.SG.ERG=	farmer	IN.SG.ACC=	ball	AN.SG.TOP=dog	give-IND.NPST.RTSP

'The farmer has given the dog a ball.'

For other situations, there exist combined forms to mark a noun as the topic when it is in the accusative, dative, or genitive case.

(24) a. bʂ7 ʐʒmŋʂ vʃv7ʐb:
Nut ablu okotam.
/nut ab'lu o.ko'tam/

nut= *ablu* *okot-am*
AN.SG.ACC.TOP= cat chase-IND.PST.IPFV

'The cats were chased.'

b. bʐʃɔb ʂlʂʃvb ʃɔd̪ʐb:
Naken ufukon keðam.
/na'ken u.fu'kon ke'ðam/

naken= *ufukon* *keð-am*
AN.PL.DAT.TOP= singer admire-IND.PST.IPFV

'The singers were admired.'

c. þvɾ 7c ɔbbcɜ ʃɔ ɖʐbɜʂ vʃv dcŋʐ:
Mod ti ennis ke þansu oko ğira.
/mod ti e'nːis ke θan'su o'ko ɣi'ra/

mod *þis=* *ennis* *ke=* *þansu* *oko* *ğir-a*
IS.ERG IN.SG.ACC= ball AN.SG.DAT= 2S.GEN.TOP dog throw-IND.NPST.IPFV

'I throw the ball to your dog.'

See section 7.1 for a greater explanation of how the topic is used within discourse.

4.2 Pronouns and Determiners

Tavonic has several types of pronouns and determiners that serve as anaphora, including personal pronouns, demonstrative pronouns, interrogative pronouns, relative pronouns, and other indefinite pronouns.

4.2.1 Personal Pronouns

As shown in Table 4.3, Tavonic contains several personal pronouns. These pronouns are symmetrical to other nouns and noun phrases,[11] declining to show gender, number, case, and topicality just like nouns while adding person.

Historically, all pronouns were regular formations with the case-marking preposition and a person-marking pronoun, but over time, these words combined and fused as grammaticalization progressed. The forms are now completely fused.

[11] Oliver A. Iggesen, "Asymmetrical Case-Marking," in *The World Atlas of Language Structures Online*, ed. Matthew S. Dryer and Martin Haspelmath (Leipzig: Max Planck Institute for Evolutionary Anthropology, 2013), https://wals.info/chapter/50.

Table 4.3: Tavonic Personal Pronouns

Person	ABS	ERG	ACC	DAT	GEN	TOP	TOP.ACC	TOP.DAT	TOP.GEN
1S	*mor*	*mod*	*mot*	*mok*	*mos*	*mon*	*montu*	*monke*	*monsu*
1PC	*morsa*	*modas*	*motos*	*mokas*	*mosar*	*monsa*	*monsut*	*monsek*	*monsus*
1P	*morna*	*modin*	*moton*	*moken*	*mosan*	*mana*	*manut*	*manek*	*manus*
2S	*ter*	*ted*	*þet*	*tek*	*tes*	*þan*	*þantu*	*þanke*	*þansu*
2PC	*tersa*	*tedas*	*þetos*	*tekas*	*tesar*	*tensa*	*tensut*	*tensek*	*tensus*
2P	*terna*	*tedin*	*þeton*	*token*	*tesan*	*tana*	*tanut*	*tanek*	*tanus*
3S.AN	*sur*	*sud*	*sut*	*suk*	*šus*	*šun*	*šuntu*	*šunke*	*šunsu*
3PC.AN	*suša*	*sudas*	*sutos*	*sukas*	*šusar*	*sunas*	*šunsut*	*šunsek*	*šunsus*
3P.AN	*surna*	*sudin*	*suton*	*suken*	*šusan*	*šona*	*šonut*	*šonek*	*šonus*
3S.IN	*gir*	*gid*	*git*	*gake*	*gis*	*gin*	*gintu*	*ginke*	*ginsu*
3PC.IN	*girsa*	*gidas*	*gitos*	*gokas*	*gisar*	*ginsa*	*ginsut*	*ginsek*	*ginsus*
3P.IN	*girna*	*gidun*	*giton*	*goken*	*gisan*	*gana*	*ganut*	*ganek*	*ganus*

(25) a. ɾv ʒɱɋbɾʐ ʒc ɔbbcɜ ȷɔ ɜɋ ɱɔŋȷ vȷv dcŋʐȷ:
Do Tlunda ti ennis ke su Lerk oko ǧirak.
/do tlun'da ti e'nːis ke su 'lerk o'ko ɣi'rak/

do=	*Tlunda*	*ti=*	*ennis*	*ke=*	*su=*	*Lerk*	*oko*
AN.SG.ERG=	Tlunda	IN.SG.ACC=	ball	AN.SG.DAT=	AN.SG.GEN=	Lerk	dog

ǧir-ak
throw-IND.PST.PFV

'Tlunda threw the ball to Lerk's dog.'

b. ɜɋɾ ʒc ɔbbcɜ ȷɔ ɜɋ ɱɔŋȷ vȷv dcŋʐȷ:
Sud ti ennis ke su Lerk oko ǧirak.
/'sud ti e'nːis ke su 'lerk o'ko ɣi'rak/

Sud	*ti=*	*ennis*	*ke=*	*su=*	*Lerk*	*oko*	*ǧir-ak*
3S.AN.ERG	IN.SG.ACC=	ball	AN.SG.DAT=	AN.SG.GEN=	Lerk	dog	throw-IND.PST.PFV

'She threw the ball to Lerk's dog.'

c. ɾv ʒɱɋbɾʐ ɓc7 ȷɔ ɜɋ ɱɔŋȷ vȷv dcŋʐȷ:
Do Tlunda git ke su Lerk oko ǧirak.
/do tlun'da 'git ke su 'lerk o'ko ɣi'rak/

do=	*Tlunda*	*git*	*ke=*	*su=*	*Lerk*	*oko*	*ǧir-ak*
AN.SG.ERG=	Tlunda	3S.IN.ACC	AN.SG.DAT=	AN.SG.GEN=	Lerk	dog	throw-IND.PST.PFV

'Tlunda threw it to Lerk's dog.'

d. ɾv 7ɱɢbɾʐ 7c ɔbbcɜ ɲɔ yɢɜ vʲv dcŋʑɭ:
Do Tlunda ti ennis ke šus oko ǧirak.
/do tlunˈda ti eˈnːis ke ˈʃus oˈko ɣiˈrak/

do=	*Tlunda*	*ti=*	*ennis*	*ke=*	*šus*	*oko*	*ǧir-ak*
AN.SG.ERG=	Tlunda	IN.SG.ACC=	ball	AN.SG.DAT=	3S.AN.GEN	dog	throw-IND.PST.PFV

'Tlunda threw the ball to his dog.'

e. ɾv 7ɱɢbɾʐ 7c ɔbbcɜ ɜɢʲ dcŋʑɭ:
Do Tlunda ti ennis suk ǧirak.
/do tlunˈda ti eˈnːis ˈsuk ɣiˈrak/

do=	*Tlunda*	*ti=*	*ennis*	*suk*	*ǧir-ak*
AN.SG.ERG=	Tlunda	IN.SG.ACC=	ball	AN.SG.DAT=	AN.SG.GEN=

'Tlunda threw the ball to him.'

Personal pronouns are used the same way their full noun phrase counterparts are, in both core and non-core cases, and replace the full noun phrase for which they are serving as anaphor. Example 25a shows a full sentence without any pronouns; examples 25b–e then show variations on this sentence with different noun phrases replaced with pronouns. Notice that the pronoun replaces the full noun phrase, for example in 25d where yɢɜ *šus* replaces only ɜɢ ɱɔŋʲ *su Lerk*, the noun in the genitive, whereas in 25e, ɜɢʲ *suk* replaces ɲɔ ɜɢ ɱɔŋʲ vʲv *ke su Lerk oko*, the full dative noun phrase. Similarly, when a noun phrase contains an adjective, the whole noun phrase is replaced, including the adjective, as in example 26.

(26) a. ʒvɱ bv lɳʐɖŋɢ ʒv7ŋʐ ʲʐb7ɔʲ:
Bol no fraþru botra kantek.
/ˈbol no fraθˈru botˈra kanˈtek/

∅=	*Bol*	*no=*	*fraþru*	*botra*	*kant-ek*
AN.SG.ABS=	Bol	AN.SG.TOP=	observant	woman	thank-IND.PST.IPFV

'Bol thanked the observant woman.'

b. * ʒvɱ lɳʐɖŋɢ yɢb ʲʐb7ɔʲ:
* *Bol fraþru šun kantek.*
/ˈbol fraθˈru ˈʃun kanˈtek/

∅=	*Bol*	*fraþru*	*šun*	*kant-ek*
AN.SG.ABS=	Bol	observant	3S.AN.TOP	thank-IND.PST.IPFV

* 'Bol thanked the observant her.'

c. ʒvɱ yɢb ȷʐbɮɔȷ:
Bol šun kantek.
/ˈbol ˈʃun kanˈtek/

∅=	*Bol*	*šun*	*kant-ek*
AN.SG.ABS=	Bol	3S.AN.TOP	thank-IND.PST.IPFV

'Bol thanked her.'

4.2.2 Demonstrative Pronouns and Determiners

There exist three demonstratives in Tavonic, including ɖɱɔ *ðle* /ðle/ 'this' (proximal), ɖɲv *þro* /θro/ 'that' (medial), and ɱɔŋɲpv *lerǩo* /lerˈxo/ 'that' (distal). Just like the personal pronouns, these demonstratives replace the whole noun phrase for which they serve as anaphor. However, unlike pronouns, they do not have fused declensional forms; instead, they decline the same way nouns do.

(27) a. þvŋ ɲv ɖɱɔ ɢɜɢ:
Mor ǩo ðle usu.
/ˈmor xo ðle uˈsu/

mor	*ǩo=*	*ðle*	*us-u*
IS.AN.ABS	IN.SG.DAT=	DEM.PROX	have-IND.NPST.IPFV

'I have this.'

b. þvŋ ɲv ɖɲv ɢɜɢ:
Mor ǩo þro usu.
/ˈmor xo θro uˈsu/

mor	*ǩo=*	*þro*	*us-u*
IS.AN.ABS	IN.SG.DAT=	DEM.MED	have-IND.NPST.IPFV

'I have that.'

c. þvŋ ɲv ɱɔŋɲpv ɢɜɢ:
Mor ǩo lerǩo usu.
/ˈmor xo lerˈxo uˈsu/

mor	*ǩo=*	*lerǩo*	*us-u*
IS.AN.ABS	IN.SG.DAT=	DEM.DIST	have-IND.NPST.IPFV

'I have that.'

The proximal demonstrative ɖɱɔ *ðle* refers to an object close to the speaker. The medial demonstrative ɖɲv *þro* refers to an object close to the addressee. The distal demonstrative ɱɔŋɲpv *lerǩo* refers to an object far from both the speaker and the addressee.

The demonstrative pronouns also inflect to show number, just like nouns. Example 28a shows the proximal demonstrative ɖɱɔ *ðle* used in the paucal number, while 28b shows the same in the plural.

(28) a. þvŋ ɲvɜ ðɱɔ ɋɜɋː
Mor kos ðle usu.
/ˈmor kos ðle uˈsu/

mor	*ǩo=*	*ðle*	*us-u*
IS.AN.ABS	IN.PC.DAT=	DEM.PROX	have-IND.NPST.IPFV

'I have these.'

b. þvŋ pɋb ðɱɔ ɋɜɋː
Mor ǩun ðle usu.
/ˈmor xun ðle uˈsu/

mor	*ǩo=*	*ðle*	*us-u*
IS.AN.ABS	IN.PL.DAT=	DEM.PROX	have-IND.NPST.IPFV

'I have these.'

The demonstratives can also be used as determiners by pairing them with a noun. These determiners lack flexivity and do not inflect to match the gender of the referent noun like adjectives do. Determiners are placed *after* the noun they modify.

(29) a. ɾʼvɲv bʐɜ ʐʒɱɋ ðɱɔ vɲv7ʐlː
D'oko nas ablu ðle okotak.
/doˈko nas abˈlu ðle o.koˈtak/

do=oko	*nas=*	*ablu*	*ðle*	*okot-ak*
AN.SG.ERG=dog	AN.PC.TOP=	cat	DEM.DET.PROX	chase-IND.PST.PFV

'The dog chased these cats.'

b. ɾʼvɲv bv ʐʒɱɋ ɖŋv vɲv7ʐlː
D'oko no ablu þro okotak.
/doˈko no abˈlu θro o.koˈtak/

do=oko	*no=*	*ablu*	*þro*	*okot-ak*
AN.SG.ERG=dog	AN.SG.TOP=	cat	DEM.DET.MED	chase-IND.PST.PFV

'The dog chased that cat.'

c. ɾʼvɲv bʐb ʐʒɱɋ ɱɔŋpv vɲv7ʐlː
D'oko nan ablu lerǩo okotak.
/doˈko nan abˈlu lerˈxo o.koˈtak/

do=oko	*nan=*	*ablu*	*lerǩo*	*okot-ak*
AN.SG.ERG=dog	AN.PL.TOP=	cat	DEM.DET.DIST	chase-IND.PST.PFV

'The dog chased those cats.'

4.2.3 Interrogative Pronouns and Determiners

Tavonic contains only one interrogative, ʐŋɲɔ *arke* /ar'ke/. By default, ʐŋɲɔ *arke* means 'who' or 'what', depending on how it is declined.

(30) a. ʇɔɳ pv ʐŋɲɔ lŋʐʃ?
Ter ǩo arke frak?
/'ter xo ar'ke 'frak/

ter *ǩo=* *arke* *fr-ak*
2S.ABS IN.SG.DAT= INT see-IND.PST.PFV

'What did you see?'

b. ʐŋɲɔ ɓcb lŋʐʃ?
Arke gin frak?
/ar'ke gin 'frak/

∅= *arke* *gin* *fr-ak*
SG.ABS= INT 3S.IN.TOP see-IND.PST.PFV

'Who saw it?'

As shown in example 30a, the interrogative pronoun is placed cb ɜc7ϱ *in situ*. In other words, the question word stays in place rather than being fronted to the beginning of the sentence like in English.

Notice also in example 30 that the particle qc *vi* is not used. Any sentence that contains the interrogative ʐŋɲɔ *arke* can be seen to be a question, obviating the need for qc *vi*. However, qc *vi* can be added back in to emphasize or, conceivably in rare instances, clarify the question.

ʐŋɲɔ *Arke* can be paired with certain nouns or postpositions to form other interrogatives such as 'where', 'when', and 'how'.

(31) a. ʇɔɳ ɓcb cbʐþ ʐŋɲɔ ɔ lŋʐʃ?
Ter gin inam arke e frak?
/'ter gin i'nam ar'ke e 'frak/

ter *gin* *inam* *arke* *e* *fr-ak*
2S.ABS 3S.IN.TOP place INT at see-IND.PST.PFV

'Where did you see it?'

b. ʇɔɳ ɓcb ɔ7ɳc ʐŋɲɔ ɔ lŋʐʃ?
Ter gin etri arke e frak?
/'ter gin et'ri ar'ke e 'frak/

ter *gin* *etri* *arke* *e* *fr-ak*
2S.ABS 3S.IN.TOP time INT at see-IND.PST.PFV

'When did you see it?'

c. ʔɔɳ ɓcb ʐŋJɔ þv lŋʐJʔ
Ter gin arke mo frak?
/ˈter gin arˈke mo ˈfrak/

ter *gin* *arke* *mo* *fr-ak*
2S.ABS 3S.IN.TOP INT with see-IND.PST.PFV

'How (with what) did you see it?'

d. ʔɔɳ ɓcb ʟɋɱ ʐŋJɔ lŋʐJʔ
Ter gin pul arke frak?
/ˈter gin pul arˈke ˈfrak/

ter *gin* *pul* *arke* *fr-ak*
2S.ABS 3S.IN.TOP way INT see-IND.PST.PFV

'How (what way) did you see it?'

ʐŋJɔ *Arke* can also be paired with other nouns as a determiner to narrow the scope of the question, as in example 32.

(32) ʔɔɳ Jɔ vJv ʐŋJɔ lŋʐJʔ
Ter ke oko arke frak?
/ˈter ke oˈko arˈke ˈfrak/

ter *ke=* *oko* *arke* *fr-ak*
2S.ABS AN.SG.DAT= dog INT see-IND.PST.PFV

'What dog did you see?'

4.2.4 Relative Pronouns

Relative pronouns are used to create subordinate clauses. There are two relative pronouns: ʟɋ7 *put* for restrictive relativization and ʒʒɜ *bas* for unrestrictive relativization.

(33) a. ɾv ɜɋɳ Jɔ ʐŋʒ lŋʐJ ʟɋ7 pʐɱv 7c ɔbbcɜ dcŋʐJ:
Do sur ke arb frak put ǩalo ti ennis ǧirak.
/do ˈsur ke ˈarb ˈfrak put xaˈlo ti enˈnis ɣiˈrak/

do= *sur* *ke=* *arb* *fr-ak* *put* *ǩalo* *ti=* *ennis*
AN.SG.ERG= 3S.AN.ABS AN.SG.DAT= bird see-IND.PST.PFV REL.RTRV man IN.SG.ACC= ball

ǧir-ak
throw-IND.PST.PFV

'The man who saw the bird threw the ball.'

b. ɜɋɳ ɲɔ ʐɳʒ lɳʐʃ ʒʐɜ ɾv pʐɱv 7c ɔbbcɜ dcɳʐʃ:
Sur ke arb frak bas do ǩalo ti ennis ǧirak.
/ˈsur ke ˈarb ˈfrak bas do xaˈlo ti enˈnis ɣiˈrak/

sur	*ke=*	*arb*	*fr-ak*	*bas*	*do*	*ǩalo*	*ti=*	*ennis*
3S.AN.ABS	AN.SG.DAT=	bird	see-IND.PST.PFV	REL.NRTRV	AN.SG.ERG=	man	IN.SG.ACC=	ball

ǧir-ak
throw-IND.PST.PFV

'The man, who saw the bird, threw the ball.'

The restrictive relative clause defines or restricts the referent with further information. Example 33a restricts the referent to specifically the man *who saw the bird* instead of a different man. Meanwhile, the non-restrictive relative clause provides supplemental information about the referent without further defining or restricting. Example 33b provides further information that the man saw the bird, but does not use that as an identifying quality.

The relative pronouns do not decline in any way. Instead, a personal pronoun is used, declined to show the role of the referent within the embedded clause. In examples 33a–b, the referent pʐɱv *ǩalo* 'man' is referred to in the embedded clause using the pronoun ɜɋɳ *sur* to show the absolutive case because the man is the actor within the embedded clause, the one seeing the bird. A more literal translation of example 33a would be something like 'The man [who he saw the bird] threw the ball.' Similarly, a more literal translation of example 34a would be something like 'The man wrote the letters [that I saw them] to his wife.'

(34) a. ɾv pʐɱv 7ɔb þvŋ ɓvɲɔb lɳʐʃ ʟɋ7 ʐɲʐʟcɜ ɲɔ yɋɜ ʒv7ɳʐ ɔd̄ɔɳʐʃ:
Do ǩalo ten mor goken frak put akrapis ke šus botra eðerak.
/do xaˈlo ten ˈmor goˈken ˈfrak put ak.raˈpis ke ˈʃus botˈra e.ðeˈrak/

do=	*ǩalo*	*ten=*	*mor*	*goken*	*fr-ak*	*put*	*akrapis*
AN.SG.ERG=	man	IN.PL.ACC=	IS.ABS	IN.PL.DAT	see-IND.PST.PFV	REL.RTRV	letter

ke=	*šus*	*botra*	*eðer-ak*
AN.SG.DAT=	3S.AN.GEN	wife	write-IND.PST.PFV

'The man wrote the letters that I saw to his wife.'

b. ɾv pʐɱv þvŋ ɓvɲɔb lɳʐʃ ʒʐɜ 7ɔb ʐɲʐʟcɜ ɲɔ yɋɜ ʒv7ɳʐ ɔd̄ɔɳʐʃ:
Do ǩalo mor goken frak bas ten akrapis ke šus botra eðerak.
/do xaˈlo ˈmor goˈken ˈfrak bas ten ak.raˈpis ke ˈʃus botˈra e.ðeˈrak/

do=	*ǩalo*	*mor*	*goken*	*fr-ak*	*bas*	*ten=*	*akrapis*
AN.SG.ERG=	man	IS.ABS	IN.PL.DAT	see-IND.PST.PFV	REL.NRTRV	IN.PL.ACC=	letter

ke=	*šus*	*botra*	*eðer-ak*
AN.SG.DAT=	3S.AN.GEN	wife	write-IND.PST.PFV

'The man wrote the letters, which I saw, to his wife.'

The location of the declining clitic for the head noun of the relative clause depends on whether the relative pronoun is restrictive or non-restrictive. When the pronoun is restrictive, as in examples 33a and 34a, the declining clitic is placed before the entire relative clause, since the embedded clause is serving as a descriptor and thus a part of the noun phrase as a whole. On the other hand, when the pronoun is non-restrictive, as in examples 33b and 34b, the embedded clause is merely supplemental information separate from the noun phrase itself, and so the clitic is placed after the relative pronoun immediately before the head noun.

4.2.5 Indefinite Pronouns and Determiners

Indefinite pronouns and determiners

4.3 Verbs

Verbs

4.4 Modifiers

Modifiers

4.4.1 Adjectives

Adjectives

4.4.2 Numerals

Numerals

4.4.3 Quantifiers and Intensifiers

Quantifiers and Intensifiers

4.5 Adverbs

Adverbs

4.6 Adpositions

Adpositions

4.7 Conjunctions

Conjunctions

5

Syntax

How do words go together?

6

Lexical Operations

6.1 Compounding

How does compounding work?

6.2 Derivation

How do you make new words?

7

Discourse

How does conversation work?

7.1 Topic

8

Sociolinguistic Context

8.1 Conceptual Metaphors

What metaphors do the vocabulary convey?

For example: language is a tool. I speak *with* or *using* Tavonic, rather than just speaking Tavonic.

8.2 Kinship Terms

The Tavonic kinship system is similar to Lewis Henry Morgan's Sudanese kinship pattern, being largely descriptive with only a few classificatory terms. Siblings are distinguished from cousins, and parallel cousins are distinguished from cross cousins. Siblings and parallel cousins are identified by gender, while cross cousins are not. Parallel aunts and uncles are distinguished from cross aunts and uncles. Grandparents are identified by gender, but are otherwise undistinguished. Children and grandchildren are similarly identified by gender but otherwise undistinguished. See Figure 8.1 for a full kinship tree.

All of the kinship terms within a nuclear family have distinct names distinguishing gender and generation.

mother cþʒ *ima* /iˈma/
father ʒqv *avo* /aˈvo/
parent qv7ʒ *vota* /voˈta/
sister lɔŋɜʒ *persa* /perˈsa/
brother vɱbv *olno* /olˈno/
sibling ʒŋþc *armi* /arˈmi/
wife ʒv7ŋʒ(þcþ) *botra(mim)* /botˈra/ or /bot.raˈmim/
husband pʒɱv(þcþ) *ǩalo(mim)* /xaˈlo/ or /xa.loˈmim/
spouse ɜʒbcþ *sanim* /saˈnim/
daughter ʒv7cJɔb *botiken* /bo.tiˈken/
son pʒ7cJɔb *ǩatiken* /xa.tiˈken/
child 7ʒ7cJɔb *tatiken* /ta.tiˈken/

Relation by marriage is expressed with a suffix *-(m)im*. This suffix can be added to several terms, such as 'sister', 'brother', 'daughter', and 'son'.

in-law	ʒʐqvƀcƀ *tavomim* /ta.vo'mim/
mother-in-law	cƀʐƀcƀ *imamim* /i.ma'mim/
father-in-law	ʐqvƀcƀ *avomim* /a.vo'mim/
sister-in-law	lɔŋɜʐƀcƀ *persamim* /per.sa'mim/
brother-in-law	vɱbvƀcƀ *olnomim* /ol.no'mim/
daughter-in-law	ʒv7cJɔƀƀcƀ *botikemmim* /bo,ti.kem'mim/
son-in-law	pʐ7cJɔƀƀcƀ *ǩatikemmim* /xa,ti.kem'mim/

Terms for one's nieces and nephews are derived from a combination of the terms for 'sister' or 'brother' and the terms for 'daughter' or 'son'.

niece (sister's daughter)	lɔŋʒv *perbo* /per'bo/
niece (brother's daughter)	vɱʒv *olbo* /ol'bo/
niece-in-law (sister's daughter-in-law)	lɔŋʒvƀcƀ *perbomim* /per.bo'mim/
niece-in-law (brother's daughter-in-law)	vɱʒvƀcƀ *olbomim* /ol.bo'mim/
nephew (sister's son)	lɔŋpʐ *perǩa* /per'xa/
nephew (brother's son)	vɱpʐ *olǩa* /ol'xa/
nephew-in-law (sister's son-in-law)	lɔŋpʐƀcƀ *perǩamim* /per.xa'mim/
nephew-in-law (brother's son-in-law)	vɱpʐƀcƀ *olǩamim* /ol.xa'mim/
niefling (gender-neutral)	ʒʂŋʐɓ *turag* /tu'rag/

The child of one's niece or nephew is called ʒʂŋʐɓ *turag*, regardless of gender. Over time, this term became generalized to be used as a classificatory gender-neutral term for all of one's nieces and nephews along with their descendants.

One's grandchildren are distinguished by gender, but not by their parents. In other words, one's daughter's daughter is called the same term as one's son's daughter. The terms for grandchildren are formed as a compound with the word Jɔđʐɱc *keðali* 'to watch'.

granddaughter	Jɔđv7cJɔb *keðotiken* /ke,ðo.ti'ken/
grandson	JɔɖʐpcJɔb *keþaǩiken* /ke,θa.xi'ken/
grandchild	Jɔɖʐb7cJɔb *keþantiken* /ke,θan.ti'ken/

Tavonic distinguishes between parallel and cross aunts and uncles. In other words, one's mother's sister is called differently than one's father's sister. These terms are further distinguished for the in-law variants with the *-(m)im* suffix.

aunt (mother's sister)	cƀlɔŋɜʐ *impersa* /im.per'sa/
aunt (father's sister)	ʐqɔŋɜʐ *aversa* /a.ver'sa/
uncle (mother's brother)	cƀvɱ *imol* /i'mol/
uncle (father's brother)	ʐqvɱvb *avolon* /a.vo'lon/
aunt (mother's sister-in-law)	cƀlɔŋɜʐƀcƀ *impersamim* /im,per.sa'mim/
aunt (father's sister-in-law)	ʐqɔŋɜʐƀcƀ *aversamim* /a,ver.sa'mim/
uncle (mother's brother-in-law)	cƀvɱcƀ *imolim* /i.mo'lim/
uncle (father's brother-in-law)	ʐqvɱvbcƀ *avolonim* /a,vo.lo'nim/

Tavonic distinguishes between parallel and cross cousins, but does not distinguish them by gender. Within parallel cousins, different terms are used to distinguish maternal vs. paternal cousins, while all cross cousins are labeled the same. Cousins' spouses are treated the same as in-laws by adding the *-(m)im* suffix.

cousin (mother's sister's child)	vŋʌɔ *orže* /orˈʒe/
cousin (father's brother's child)	Jvþgy *komuš* /koˈmuʃ/
cousin (cross cousin)	Jvbbcɜ *konnis* /konˈnis/
cousin (mother's sister's child-in-law)	vŋʌɔþcþ *oržemim* /or.ʒeˈmim/
cousin (father's brother's child-in-law)	Jvþgycþ *komušim* /ko.muˈʃim/
cousin (cross cousin-in-law)	Jvbbcɜcþ *konnisim* /kon.niˈsim/

The descendants of one's cousins are not distinguished in any way, even between parallel and cross cousins. Further, they are all called by the same term as one's cross cousins: *konnis*.

Grandparents are distinguished by gender, but there is no distinction made between maternal and paternal grandparents. Similar to the terms for grandchildren, the terms for grandparents are formed as a compound with the word Jɔđʐɱc *keđali* 'to watch'.

grandmother	Jɔđcþʐ *keđima* /ke.ðiˈma/
grandfather	Jɔđʐqv *keđavo* /ke.ðaˈvo/
grandparent	Jɔđv7ʐq *keđotav* /ke.ðoˈtav/

One's grandparents' siblings are called by the same terms as for one's aunts and uncles. In other words, one would call one's maternal grandmother's brother the same term as one's mother would call that person, or as one would call one's own mother's brother.

8.3 Names

8.3.1 Masculine Names

- ʒvɱ Bol /ˈbol/
- ɱɔŋJ Lerk /ˈlerk/
- þvɱɱgŋ Mollur /moˈlːur/
- v7ɔ Ote /oˈte/

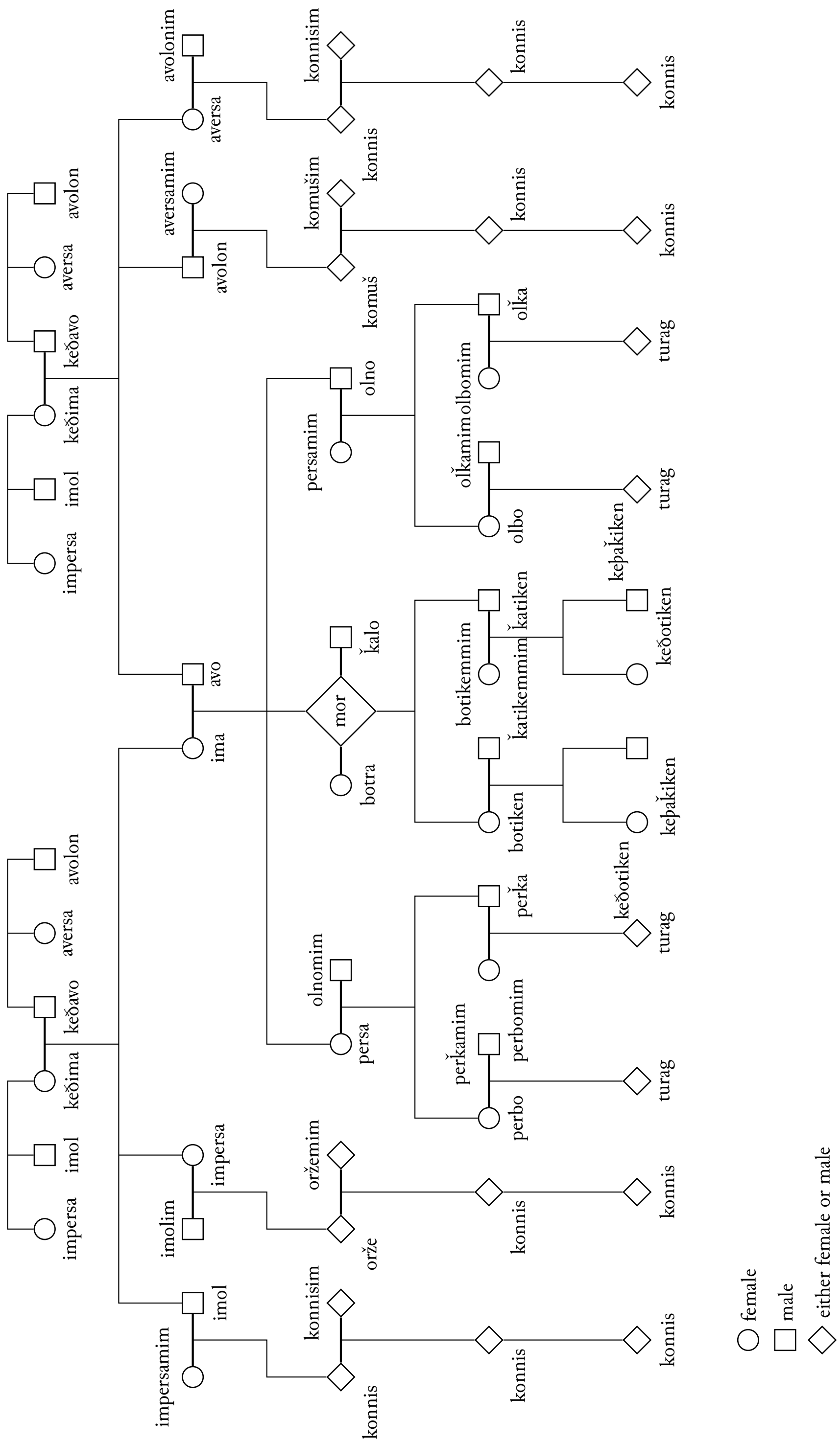
8.3.2 Feminine Names

- ʒɱcþqʐ Blimva /blimˈva/
- ɓvɱ7g Goltu /golˈtu/
- 7ɱgbrʐ Tlunda /tlunˈda/
- ʁʐŋɜʐ Zarsa /zarˈsa/

8.3.3 Gender-Neutral Names

- ɔŋþɔ Erme /er'me/
- cbJc Inki /in'ki/
- ŋvbbɔ Ronne /ron'ne/

Figure 8.1: Tavonic Kinship Tree



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Tavonic Reference Grammar

Here is a reference grammar for Tavonic.

Part II

Tavonic Family: Alnuric

10

History and Ethnography

This chapter will present a brief history of the Alnuric language, followed by a short description of its ethnolinguistic context.

10.1 Brief History

Here will be a brief historical description of the Alnureth.

10.2 Ethnography

10.2.1 Demonyms and Language Names

For hundreds of years, the empire ruled in the southern region of Ardusa. The Tavonic word *unner* /unˈner/ ‘empire’ evolved into the Alnuric word *alnur* /alˈnur/. *Alnurek* /al.nuˈrek/ ‘Alnuric’ takes its name from this word. Meanwhile, the Redodhic name for the empire is *nonar* /noˈnar/, and its name for the Alnuric language is *Nonrik* /nonˈrik/. Similarly, the Alnuric and Redodhic names for the Alnuric people are *Alnureþ* /al.nuˈreθ/ and *Nonriþ* /nonˈriθ/ respectively.

10.2.2 Ethnology

Here will be a brief ethnological description of the Alnureth.

10.2.3 Demography

Here will be a brief demographical description of the Alnureth.

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Alnuric Reference Grammar

Here is a reference grammar for Alnuric.

Part III

Tavonic Family: Redodhic

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History and Ethnography

This chapter will present a brief history of the Redodhic language, followed by a short description of its ethnolinguistic context.

19.1 Brief History

Here will be a brief historical description of the Redodhith.

19.2 Ethnography

19.2.1 Demonyms and Language Names

In the north, the alliance resisted the empire's expansion. The Tavonic word *aroltutaþ* /aˌrol.tuˈtaθ/ signifies 'alliance', however the alliance instead used the simpler form *arutaþ* /a.ruˈtaθ/ 'standers' to signify the alliance of those kingdoms standing against the empire. *Arutaþ* evolved into the Redodhic word *rejiþ* /reˈd͡ʒiθ/, and *Redoðik* /re.doˈðik/ 'Redodhic' takes its name from this word. The Alnuric name for the alliance is *eradeþ* /e.raˈdeθ/, and its name for the Redodhic language is *Eratþek* /e.ratˈθek/. Similarly, the Redodhic and Alnuric names for the Redodhic people are *Redoðiþ* /re.doˈðiθ/ and *Eratþeþ* /e.ratˈθeθ/ respectively.

19.2.2 Ethnology

Here will be a brief ethnological description of the Redodhith.

19.2.3 Demography

Here will be a brief demographical description of the Redodhith.

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Redodhic Reference Grammar

Here is a reference grammar for Redodhic.

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Gnomish Reference Grammar

Part X

Appendices

A

Example Texts

Here are some longer example translations.

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